ED 015 190 TE 000 130

THE EFFECT OF SPECIAL INSTRUCTION ON THE ABILITY OF SEVENTH- AND EIGHTH-GRADE PUPILS TO WRITE COMPOSITION AND UNDERSTAND POETRY AND SHORT FICTION. FINAL REPORT.

BY- BLAKE, ROBERT W.
STATE UNIV. OF N.Y., BROCKPORT, COLL. AT BROCKPORT

REPORT NUMBER CRP-S-312 PUB DATE JUN 66
REPORT NUMBER BR-5-8047
GRANT OEG-5-10-437
EDRS PRICE MF-$0.75 HC-$7.88 195P.

DESCRIPTORS- *COMPOSITION (LITERARY), *ENGLISH INSTRUCTION, *STRUCTURAL GRAMMAR, *TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR, *TRANSFORMATION GENERATIVE GRAMMAR, GRADE 7, GRAMMAR, SENTENCE STRUCTURE, LINGUISTICS,

BECAUSE OF LIMITATIONS DURING THE ACTUAL STUDY, THIS PROJECT WAS DELIMITED TO THE STUDY OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF USING MATERIALS ADAPTED FROM STRUCTURAL AND GENERATIVE GRAMMARS UPON THE ABILITY OF SEVENTH-GRADE STUDENTS TO WRITE MORE MATURE COMPOSITIONS. FORTY-THREE STUDENTS WERE GIVEN EXPERIMENTAL LINGUISTICALLY-ORIENTED MATERIALS DESIGNED TO TEACH THEM TO ANALYZE ENGLISH SENTENCES BY A STRUCTURAL GRAMMAR APPROACH AND TO CREATE AND COMBINE NEW SENTENCES BY A GENERATIVE-TRANSFORMATIONAL APPROACH. FIFTY STUDENTS IN THE CONTROL GROUP WERE GIVEN TRADITIONAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION. AS PRE- AND POST-TESTS OF WRITING MATURITY, ALL STUDENTS TOOK THE SEQUENTIAL TESTS OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS (STEP) WRITING TEST AND WROTE SAMPLE COMPOSITIONS WHICH WERE APPRAISED BY EMPLOYING THE T-UNIT LENGTH. THE RESULTS INDICATED THAT BOTH GROUPS MADE SIGNIFICANT GAINS IN ACHIEVEMENT DURING THE STUDY AND THAT, ALTHOUGH THE LINGUISTIC GROUP MADE SIGNIFICANTLY HIGHER SCORES ON THE POST-TEST, THE DIFFERENCES IN THE GAIN BETWEEN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS WAS NOT STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT. THEREFORE, NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE IN STUDENT ABILITY TO WRITE COMPOSITIONS WAS SEEN BETWEEN STUDENTS WHO HAD MATERIALS BASED UPON STRUCTURAL AND GENERATIVE GRAMMARS AND STUDENTS WHO HAD TRADITIONAL LATINATE GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION. IT IS FELT, HOWEVER, THAT ANOTHER STUDY, WITH THE SAME THEORETICAL BASIS AND WITH MORE CAREFUL CONTROL OF SOME FACTORS, WOULD SHOW A SIGNIFICANT POSITIVE CORRELATION. (AN APPENDIX CONTAINS THE INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL AND EXERCISES GIVEN TO STUDENTS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL LINGUISTICALLY-ORIENTED GROUP.) (AUTHOR/DL)

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

BR 5-8047
PA 24

ED015190

FINAL REPORT
Project No. S-312
Grant No. OE 5-10-437

THE EFFECT OF SPECIAL INSTRUCTION ON THE ABILITY OF SEVENTH- AND EIGHTH-GRADE PUPILS TO WRITE COMPOSITION AND UNDERSTAND POETRY AND SHORT FICTION

June 1966

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Office of Education
Bureau of Research

TE000 130

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

THE EFFECT OF SPECIAL INSTRUCTION ON THE ABILITY OF SEVENTH- AND EIGHTH-GRADE PUPILS TO WRITE COMPOSITION AND UNDERSTAND POETRY AND SHORT FICTION

Project No. S-312
Grant No. OE 5-10-437

Robert W. Blake

June 1966

The research reported herein was performed pursuant to a Grant No. OE 5-10-437 with the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment in the conduct of the project. Points of view or opinions stated do not, therefore, necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

State University College

Brockport, New York 14420

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

1. INTRODUCTION 1

    Background
    The Problem
    Related Research
    Summary

2. EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN 7

    Selection and Preparation of Materials
    Sources of Data
    Field-Testing the Materials
    Assigning the Students
    Administration of the Study
    Treatment of the Data
    Summary

3. RESULTS 22

4. DISCUSSION 32

5. CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS 35

    Conclusions
    Implications
    Recommendations

6. REFERENCES 37

7. APPENDIX A 39

    Junior High School Linguistics Materials

TABLES

Page

TABLE I Treatment of Data.......................... 20

TABLE II A Comparison of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Linguistic Group and the Control Group of the Scores of the STEP Writing Test, 3A.................. 22

TABLE III A Comparison of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Linguistic Group on the Pre- and Post-Test Scores of the STEP Writing Tests, 3A and 3B................ 22

TABLE IV A Comparison of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Control Group on the Pre- and Post-Test Scores of the STEP Writing Tests, 3A and 3B................ 23

TABLE V A Comparison of the Pre- to Post-Gain Scores of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Linguistic Group and the Control Group of the Scores of the STEP Writing Test....................... 23

TABLE VI A Comparison of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Linguistic Group and the Control Group of the Mean Length of the T-units of the Pre-Writing Samples... 24

TABLE VII A Comparison of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Linguistic Group of the Mean Length of the T-units of the Pre- and Post-Writing Samples........... 24

TABLE VIII A Comparison of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Control Group of the Mean Length of the T-units of the Pre- and Post-Writing Samples................ 25

TABLE IX A Comparison of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Linguistic Group and the Control Group of the Mean Length of the T-units of the Post-Writing Samples.. 25

TABLES-Continued

Page

TABLE X A Comparison of the Pre- to Post-Gain Scores of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Linguistic Group and the Control Group of the Mean Length of the T-units of the Writing Samples ... 26

TABLE XI A Comparison of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Linguistic Group and the Control Group of the Converted Scores of the Mean Length of the T-units of the Pre-Writing Samples............... 27

TABLE XII A Comparison of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Linguistic Group of the Converted Scores of the Mean Length of the T-units of the Pre- and Post-Writing Samples......................... 27

TABLE XIII A Comparison of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Control Group of the Converted Scores of the Mean Length of the T-units of the Pre- and Post-Writing Samples................................ 28

TABLE XIV A Comparison of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Linguistic Group of the Converted Scores of the Mean Length of the T-units of the Post-Writing Samples................................ 28

TABLE XV A Comparison of the Pre- to Post-Gain of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Linguistic Group and the Control Group of the Converted Scores of the Mean Length of the T-units of the Writing Samples................................ 29

1. INTRODUCTION

Background

The relation of the study of English grammar and its effect upon the ability of students to write more mature compositions -- by whatever criteria -- is at once one of the most important and yet one of the most elusive questions that the public school teacher of English must face. With the increased attention paid to the new descriptions of English grammar made by linguists, the hypothesis has been advanced that perhaps there is tentative evidence to support a program of writing for students in which they study English grammars that are based upon the most accurate research available and which describe English realistically and accurately. There is a stated need for the most recent and accepted research in linguistics to be translated into practice in the public school classrooms; the problem of the relationship between achievement in writing ability and study of modern grammars of English is one which deserves close attention.

The editors of the Harvard Educational Review, Spring, 1964, an issue devoted entirely to Language and Learning, stated:

> If a theme pervades the Issue, it is criticism of the current teaching of a first language at all academic levels. That almost every one of our contributors comments upon this inadequacy suggests that university specialists in many discrete disciplines are eager for new insights into language to be translated into classroom practice.(10)

In 1962 H. A. Gleason quite unequivocally maintained that "The point of contact between composition and literature lies within language, broadly conceived."(7) For Gleason, students should be trained to understand English in terms of syntactic patterns.

> This of course should not be begun in Freshman English, nor for that matter in high school. Junior high school students can do very well at it. They can work out inductively the basic principles of English grammar and they can carry this far beyond what is set forth in the school textbooks. We desperately need some thorough explanation of the abilities of school children in this field. I suspect that we will be astounded at the depths to which they can penetrate in language analysis as well.(7)

In 1964, Gleason wrote that the study of English grammar by linguistic approaches "has a relevance in the study of literature and composition simply because it deals in a systematic way with the same basic stuff which they use as their medium. It is the central component in a comprehensive English curriculum."(6) For Gleason, what is required in composition instruction is an appreciation of "artful patterning," a developing in the student of the ability to make choices of sentence patterns effectively. Gleason concludes by observing that a total change in the method of presenting language is needed, that students should be introduced to techniques by which grammatical formulations are arrived at. This would most effectively be accomplished by inductive teaching, by leading the students to discover principles by themselves.

Martin Joos, relating the study of modern grammars to the teaching of writing, recommended that teachers should lead students to learn how to write by encouraging them to experiment with grammatical and derivational transformations until they hit upon those patterns which are satisfying to them. The suggested method would involve continual experimentation in the creation of varied sentence patterns with encouragement and little criticism by the teacher that would inhibit this creation.(12)

Some linguists, on the other hand, state that the study of modern English grammars, by whatever method, will not help students to write more mature compositions. For Paul Roberts, linguistic study provides a teachable and pertinent subject matter for the teacher, and it is interesting for the students. Linguistics, states Roberts, will not lead to improvement in writing or sentence sense for those who don't have it.(16) Linguistics, furthermore, has no cure for the problems of the composition class, writes Roberts; what it does have to offer for departments of English is a subject matter.(15) In agreement with this point of view is Robert B. Lees, who believes that the major importance of grammatical studies is in the area of behavioral sciences and not in "supposed applications to the pedagogy of rhetoric."(13)

It may be true that there is no or little correlation between a student's knowledge of traditional grammatical descriptions of the English language and his ability to write. The very point, however, may be that the students have been exposed to *Latinate* grammar, which -- it is generally agreed by most linguists -- does not accurately describe the English language as it is spoken and written by native speakers of the language. As Sumner Ives has pointed out, the studies that establish the lack of correlation between a knowledge of traditional grammar and of an ability to write effective English sentences may not be valid precisely because traditional grammar has been taught, and this grammar does not accurately describe the English language.(11)

The Problem

The original aim of the exploratory study was to determine the effectiveness of English language instruction using structural and generative grammar approaches and its relation to student writing and understanding of poetry and short fiction at the seventh- and eighth-grade levels. Because of limitations in assimilation of the experimental materials by the teacher and by students, the problem was delimited to include only the relationship between modern grammar study and writing improvement; also the experimental materials were used during the actual study with only seventh-grade students, not with seventh- and eighth-grade students.

The immediate significance of the exploratory study was to ascertain whether a knowledge of the English language through a study of structural and generative grammars would improve student writing. The further significance of the study was to determine the feasibility of applying the principles and procedures -- modified for grade and ability levels -- at the kindergarten through six grade levels. Eventually, it was anticipated that a fully-articulated program of language instruction and writing could be developed for grades kindergarten through twelve.

The general hypothesis was that students who are taught to analyze their own spoken and written sentences and sentences of representative professional writers by a structural grammar approach and who are encouraged to create a variety of sentences by a generative grammar approach will write more mature compositions.

The following null hypotheses were to be tested as appropriate guides leading to the identification of differences between the two groups.

1. There is no significant difference in student ability to write compositions as a result of the method in which they received instruction in English grammar.

2. There is no significant difference in student ability in reading comprehension as a result of the method in which they received instruction in basic grammar.

Because of limitations during the actual study, the null hypothesis number one only was tested.

Originally, the following specific areas and objectives were to be covered in the experimental treatment:

English Grammar

1. To provide the students with an understanding of the process of analyzing English sentences by a structural grammar approach.

2. To provide the students with an understanding of the process of generating a variety of English sentences from a basic body of kernel sentences.

3. To encourage the students to create many "generated" sentences with a variety of modifying structures such as prepositional phrases, dependent clauses, and verbal phrases.

4. To give the students many opportunities to analyze their own sentence patterns and those of representative writers from the complementary points of view of structural and generative grammatical approaches. Because of limitations, the students were not able to analyze sentence patterns of professional writers in a systematic fashion.

Writing

To encourage wide and constant experimentation on the part of students in creating varied English sentence patterns. The emphasis was on analyzing and creating sentence patterns as a means to understanding and employing the language better.

Literature

To provide the student with opportunities to analyze poetry and short fiction from a linguistic approach. Because of limitations, very little of this type of analysis was accomplished.

Related Research

Although some linguists such as Roberts and Lees state that a study of English grammars by a linguistic approach will not help secondary school students to become better writers, by whatever criteria, there are a few research reports that provide at least tentative evidence to the contrary.

As early as 1959, Donald R. Bateman reported that eighth-grade students who were given grammar materials based primarily upon structural linguistics over a three-quarter period wrote sentences that were more heavily modified and richer in detail, longer, and more carefully interrelated than were sentences previous to this instruction.(1)

Another report of research conducted by Frank T. Zidonis found that eighth- and ninth-grade students wrote significantly more well-formed sentences after instruction in selected aspects of generative grammar.(18) The reason for this concluded Zidonis was that:

> *With the advent of generative grammar, which in essence represents the psychological process of producing sentences,*

> a logical approach to the study of composition has become available. For it is the goal of generative grammar to specify by ordered rules the well-formed, and only the well-formed sentences, of English.(18)

The key to the effectiveness of generative grammar and its relation to writing and to literature would appear to be in its accuracy for describing the very process whereby language is learned by an individual. This thesis is supported by a study of the development of English syntax in children between eighteen and thirty-six months of age made by Brown and Bellugi.(2) The researchers found that imitation by children of their mothers' speech patterns was one method of language development; another was the expansion of the childrens' patterns by the mothers. A third and very complex method was that of generating new patterns and of progressively differentiating among syntaxtic classes. By such a process, children seemed to gain an increased knowledge of the possibilities of their language, and it seems reasonable to infer that such a process lies at the heart of communication.

Finally, W. Kellogg Hunt, in his analysis of the writing of average students at the fourth, eighth and twelfth grades, found that, almost without exception, the structures used by twelfth graders were also used by fourth graders as well; many of the structures, however, were used with significantly more frequency by older students.(9) For Hunt, "The sentence-combining part of transformational grammar offers an especially promising approach for writing development studies."(9) Continues Hunt in the section of the report on "Implications for the Curriculum":

> This study suggests a kind of sentence-building program that probably has never been produced. Such a program would deal with sentence-combining transformations. Obviously such a study should come after the constituent structure section of a course in transformational grammar. The student should be exercised in the process of combining kernel sentences into more complicated sentences. He could also be given complicated sentences to break down into kernel sentences . . . .
>
> Whether the sentence-combining process should be taught at all is not self-evident. If skill in that process is the most important factor in sentence maturity, then a teacher is certainly tempted to try to force the growth.
>
> But forced growth is not always firm growth. It may be that the older student's ability to write longer T-units, incorporating a larger number of kernel sentences, comes only as a result of years of physiological and experiential maturing. It may only come with the development of all

> thought processes. In that event, attempts to force growth will not succeed. Nonetheless, the experiment should be made.(9)

This present report relates the results of one such experiment.

Summary

One of the most important problems that faces the public school teacher is the question of the relationship between the instruction which students receive in grammar and its effect upon their ability to write better compositions, by whatever criteria. Although many linguists and teachers who work in applied linguistics state that modern English grammars will not affect any student's ability to write better, a few scholars maintain that a program in which students receive information about the English language based upon the most accurate information available from modern linguistic science will produce a marked effect upon the students' writing production with relation to selected criteria. This particular study was conducted to determine the effectiveness of English language instruction, using materials adapted from structural and generative grammars, upon the ability of students to write more mature compositions. The study was originally intended to test the relationship between such language instruction and the students' ability to understand poetry and short fiction; but because of limitations during the actual study, the problem was delimited to include only the relationship between modern grammar study and student writing improvement. The actual study was also limited to seventh-grade students only, not seventh- and eighth-grade students. The general significance of the study would be to ascertain whether or not a study of modern English grammars would lead to improved student writing. The further significance of such a study would be to determine the feasibility of applying the principles and procedures in a fully-articulated program of language instruction for grades kindergarten through twelve in the public school.

2. EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

Selection and Preparation of Materials

The original objective of the experimental materials was to provide the student with an understanding of how to analyze English sentences by a structural grammar approach and of how to create and combine new sentences by a generative-transformational approach. It was hoped that the students, as a result of this instruction, would write longer, more mature sentences and would understand better the structure of poetry and short fiction. A general outline of the original plan for instruction of the experimental group is as follows:

1. Introduction to the linguistics approach

2. Structural grammar
    - Analyzing of basic patterns
    - Attention to means of modification
    - Analyzing of varied patterns

3. Generative grammar
    - Kernel sentences
    - Transformations
    - Creating varied sentence patterns

4. Writing
    - Use of varied sentence patterns
    - Use of various kinds and levels of modification
    - Use of concepts and concrete details

5. Reading poetry and short fiction
    - Analyzing patterns of language
    - Concentrating on style as choice of patterns

Because of the limitations of time and of the ability of the teacher to assimilate the materials and of the students to comprehend the new materials, the "Use of concepts and concrete details" from the writing section and the complete unit on "Reading poetry and short fiction" were not covered during the actual experimental period.

Since there was a paucity of linguistic materials available for use, especially at the junior high school level, the Director adapted materials from several sources and wrote lessons with exercises appropriate for junior high school students. The books which were the primary sources for the especially prepared materials were Fries' The Structure of English(5), Roberts' English Sentences(14), Whitehall's Structural Essentials of English(17), the article, "Structured Structuralism: Composition and Modern Linguistics" by

Michael Grady(8) which reports the results of materials used in the classroom based upon an approach to rhetoric developed by Francis Christensen.(3,4)

A short outline of the lessons prepared by the Director and a description of their content follows. The complete lessons are to be found as Appendix A of the report.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL LINGUISTICS MATERIALS

Junior High School Linguistics Materials

LESSON	TITLE
ONE:	WHAT IS GRAMMAR? Grammar is defined as building sentences which would be used by native speakers of English. Nonsense sentences can be grammatical. Exercise: identifying grammatical and ungrammatical groups of words.
TWO:	GRAMMAR AND USAGE Three "levels" of English are established: 1. formal 2. illiterate 3. ungrammatical. Exercise: identifying the three"levels" of English.
THREE:	FORM CLASS WORDS Four ways of identifying form class words are established: 1. inflection 2. derivational affixes 3. word order 4. stress. Analysis of nonsense sentences introduced as a means of identifying form class words. Exercises: changing form class words to different classes in sentences, changing form class words by changing stress, and identifying form class words in nonsense sentences.
FOUR:	FORM CLASS WORDS: NOUNS Identifying nouns by substituting words in noun "slots" of minimum free utterances; identifying nouns by inflection, affixes, word order, and stress. Exercises: substituting words in noun slots in sentences, changing nouns in sentences by inflection, and changing designated words in sentences to nouns.
FIVE:	FORM CLASS WORDS: VERBS Identifying verbs by substituting words in verb "slots"

in sentences; identifying verbs by inflection, affixes, word order, and stress.

Exercises: substituting words in verb slots in sentences and changing designated words in sentences to verbs.

SIX: FORM CLASS WORDS: ADJECTIVES
Identifying adjectives by substituting words in adjective "slots" in sentences; determiners, comparison of adjectives; characteristic derivational suffixes of adjectives.

Exercises: substituting words in adjective slots in sentences, changing isolated words to adjectives by changing derivational suffixes, and changing designated words in sentences to adjectives by changing derivational suffixes.

SEVEN: FORM CLASS WORDS: ADVERBS
Identifying adverbs by substituting words in adverb "slots" in sentences; identifying adverbs by inflection, suffixes, word order, and stress; adverbs and prepositions.

Exercises: substituting words in adverb slots in sentences; changing isolated words to adverbs by changing derivational suffixes, and changing designated words in sentences to adjectives by changing derivational suffixes.

EIGHT: STRUCTURE WORDS
Identification of major structure words: 1. determiners 2. auxiliaries 3. intensifiers 4. coordinators 5. subordinators 6. prepositions 7. interrogators 8. miscellaneous structure words.

Exercise: substituting words in structure word slots in sentences.

NINE: THE SENTENCE: SUBJECT
Basic relationship between subject and predicate; normal sentence order of subject and predicate; use of nouns, determiners, and pronouns in the subject.

Exercises: substituting countable, non-countable, animate, and proper nouns in subject slots in sentences; changing inverted sentences to normal order; and identifying nouns, determiners, and pronouns in the subject position in sentences.

TEN THE SENTENCE: PREDICATE
Use of auxiliaries to qualify verbal meaning; types of verbs; principal parts of verbs;

Pattern One: (D) N V (Adverb)
The girls sing happily.

Exercises: identifying basic verbs from complex verb forms in sentences; filling in principal parts of verbs; writing sample Pattern One sentences.

ELEVEN: SENTENCE PATTERNS ONE AND TWO
Sentence Pattern One: (D) N V (Adverb)
The dogs growl ferociously.
Sentence Pattern Two: (D) N V Adj.
The rose smells sweet.
Ambiguity in sentences, e.g. She looked fast.

Exercises: explaining ambiguous sentences; identifying Pattern One and Two Sentences; creating original Pattern One and Two Sentences.

TWELVE SENTENCE PATTERNS THREE AND FOUR
Sentence Pattern Three: (D) N_1 V (D) N_2
My aunt abhors those dogs.
Sentence Pattern Four: (D) N_1 V (D) N_3 (D)
Our secretary gave the class the
N_2
minutes.

Exercises: identifying and creating Pattern Three and Four Sentences.

THIRTEEN SENTENCE PATTERNS FIVE, SIX, AND SEVEN
Sentence Pattern Five: (D) N be Adverb
The girl is here.
Sentence Pattern Six: (D) N be Adj.
The roses were lovely.
Sentence Pattern Seven: (D) N_1 be (D) N_2
The umpire is my uncle.

Exercises: identifying and creating Pattern Five, Six, and Seven Sentences.

FOURTEEN: KERNEL SENTENCES AND TRANSFORMATIONS
Explanation of kernel sentences and transformed sentences and rules for the passive transformations.

Exercises: changing simple sentences to passive transformations and breaking down complex sentences into basic sentence patterns.

FIFTEEN: EXPANSION BY MODIFICATION: ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS
How single word adjectives are derived from basic sentence patterns; nouns and verbs as adjectives.

Exercises: deriving single word adjectives and adverbs from basic sentence patterns; using adjectives and adverbs to expand sentences.

SIXTEEN: EXPANSION BY AUXILIARY OR HELPING VERBS
Using modals and auxiliaries to expand verb forms for qualified meaning.

Exercises: creating original sentences with expanded verb forms according to prescribed patterns; changing complex verb patterns to simple forms; and writing new sentences using many types of auxiliaries.

SEVENTEEN: EXPANSION BY PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES
Prepositions of location, direction, and association; deriving prepositional phrases from basic sentence patterns.

Exercises: identifying prepositional phrases in sentences; writing new sentences using prepositional phrases; changing complex prepositions to simple prepositions in sentences.

EIGHTEEN: EXPANSION BY RELATIVE AND SUBORDINATE INCLUDED PATTERNS
How relative and subordinate clauses are formed by sentence-combining transformations.

Exercises: identifying relative and subordinate included patterns; producing relative and subordinate included patterns by sentence-combining transformations; and writing new sentences using relative and subordinate included patterns.

NINETEEN: EXPANSION BY INCLUDED VERBAL PATTERNS
How participles, infinitives, and gerunds are formed by sentence-producing transformations.

Exercises: identifying included verbal patterns; producing verbal included patterns in sentence-combining transformations; and writing new sentences using verbal included patterns.

Sources of Data

Originally the experimental materials were to be used with two existing seventh- and eighth-grade classes in two different junior high schools. Because of changes in personnel, both the experimental and control classes were taught by one teacher at the Barker Central

School, Barker, New York. Two existing seventh-grade classes were given the experimental materials and two other existing seventh-grade classes were given traditional Latinate grammar and language instruction. One teacher taught both the linguistic and control groups. The seventh grade level was chosen because it usually represents a transition period in language instruction when students usually receive a heavy dose of traditional grammar and mechanics.

Field-Testing the Linguistic Materials

The linguistic materials were initially field-tested by the Director and Associate Researcher with two seventh-grade and two eighth-grade classes of the State University College Demonstration School at Brockport, New York during the spring of 1965. Many of the concepts seem to have been assimilated and understood by the students; however, all of the units were revised and re-written during the summer of 1965 and throughout the academic year 1965-66.

Assigning the Students

The linguistic materials were used with two seventh-grade classes of the Barker Central School, and the control groups were comprised of two seventh-grade groups at the Barker Central School. Both experimental and control classes were taught by the same teacher; therefore the differences between training, experience, and personality of two teachers was eliminated.

Administration of the Study

The study lasted from October, 1965 to June, 1966. Ninety-three students were involved in the study with forty-three students working with the linguistic materials and fifty students working with the control materials.

Prior to the use of the linguistic materials, all of the students were given the STEP Writing Test, 3A, as a pre-test. Also, a writing sample from all of the students was gathered. For the writing sample, the teacher wrote a topic sentence on the chalk board, such as one of the following:

1. The wind is blowing the leaves from the trees, and boys and girls walk along the streets, their shoulders hunched against the cold.

2. The snow seems almost gone; perhaps spring is on its way.

3. The trees are covered with fresh, new leaves, and the sun is hot once again.

The teacher then asked for evidence from the students which added to the description and wrote the sample details on the chalk board.

These directions were given to the students:

> Using the topic sentence, write a paragraph on the composition paper provided. Make the paper as interesting as possible, using as many different kinds of sentences as you can. You have the rest of the period in which to complete your composition.

The students were allowed to finish the compositions, making only those corrections and revisions which could be completed within the class period.

The teacher was sent several copies of the linguistic units and multiple copies of the exercises for use by all the students. Usually there were two lessons for each week during the original time schedule; however, the teacher found that a much longer time was needed for her to assimilate the materials, to present the new ideas to the students, and for the students to assimilate the new materials through the use of the exercise materials. The new ideas for each lesson were introduced by the teacher; the exercises, for the most part, were done in the classroom itself with explanations and suggestions given freely by the teacher.

The control groups were given traditional language instruction appropriate for the seventh-grade in parts of speech, traditional Latinate grammar, and usage. Writing assignments were given periodically to both the linguistic and control groups. Appropriate units in literature were also assigned throughout the school year so that a too heavy dosage of English grammar would not be given.

At the end of the experimental period, all of the students were given the STEP Writing Test, 3B, as a post-test. Also, a writing sample was gathered from all of the students. The same procedure was used for gathering the post-writing sample as was used for gathering the pre-writing sample. The teacher wrote a topic sentence on the board, asked for sample details from the students, wrote some of these details on the chalk board, and the students wrote a composition, using the suggested topic sentence, in the classroom during the allotted class period.

Treatment of the Data

The t test for the comparison of mean and standard deviations of the standardized test scores and of the mean length of the T-units for the pre- and post-writing samples was chosen as the appropriate statistical treatment. The two groups represented intact classes previously assigned in a public junior high school. In terms of the STEP Writing Test, 3A, the linguistic group was significantly higher in achievement at the beginning of the study than the control group. In terms of the mean length of T-units, however, there was no significant difference between the two groups at the beginning of the study.

A fuller discussion is appropriate at this time for describing the treatment of the data of the writing samples. An original aim of the study was to determine whether or not students wrote more mature compositions, from the standpoint of more complex sentences, after instruction in principles of structural and generative grammar than did students who were given instruction in traditional Latinate grammar. As W. Kellogg Hunt points out in his recent study(9), traditional analyses of language development studies have used sentence length, clause length, subordination ratio, and kinds of subordination clauses as criteria for measuring growth in writing maturity.

Some young students, however, write long groups of words connected by many "and's" and "but's"; such a group of words might contain a great number of words, but the words would not necessarily represent a "good" or "mature" sentence in any sense of the word.

For instance, here is an example of one of the pre-writing samples gathered for the present study.

Autumn

The bright red and yellow leaves fall, the mornings grow cold/ and the scent of autumn fills the air. (Topic Sentence)/ 1(And) it reminds me of hunting and fishing. 2When all the ducks and geeses come back and the fish begins to jump. 3(And) when I go out in the flieds with my gun, and see very many kinds of deer and the pretty trees and leaves, it alweys makes me think of autumn. 4(And) when I go fishing in the streams I hope to catch a fish. 5(And) when you look carefully you may see two turtles, and it looks as if they are thinking of a place to sleep. 6(And) then the air became colder and the water becomes colder, then you no that winter is on its way, then all of a sudden thing begin to turn white, but

> some day autumn will be back. 7(And) the leaves and trees will be a bright color red and yellow.

If we exclude the topic sentences, do not count the "and's" and "but's" at the beginning of groups of words, and consider a sentence as a group of words between a capital letter and a period (as had been done with previous studies which considered the length of sentences as the criterion for evaluating student writing), then we find that this student has written seven "sentences" with an average number of 19.14 words per sentence. Without an explanation, we would find the number of words per sentence quite impressive for a seventh grader; his composition, though, must be examined more carefully. "Sentence" six, for instance, is composed of 36 words; however, the words are joined in the following fashion: two independent clauses joined by an "and"; an independent clause tacked on with a comma (a run-on sentence, in popular terminology); and another independent clause tacked on with a comma and joined by a final independent clause connected by the coordinate conjunction, "but." This hardly seems to be mature writing.

If we follow W. Kellogg Hunt's directions for identifying what he calls the T-unit, we have a much more realistic appraisal of the writing.

> The investigation could then cut up this connected discourse into the shortest segments which it would be grammatically allowable to write with a capital letter at one end and a period or question mark at the other, leaving no fragment as residue. Each segment would contain one main clause, which might or might not have a noun clause or adjective clause embedded within it. Any adverbial clause would have to be attached to a preceding or following main clause. Two main clauses would become segments. These cuts between segments would fall exactly where an over-zealous grammarian would put periods if he were putting in as many as possible, respecting grammar not style.(9)

Following these directions, then, the preceding composition would be broken up into the following T-units:

Autumn

> The bright red and yellow leaves fall, the mornings grow cold/ and the scent of autumn fills the air. (Topic Sentence)/ 1(And) it reminds me of hunting and fishing.

> When all the ducks and geeses come back and the fish begins to jump/ 2(And) when I go out in the flieds with my gun, and see very many kinds of deer and the pretty trees and leaves, it always makes me think of autumn./ 3(And) when I go fishing in the streams I hope to catch a fish/ 4(And) when you look carefully you may see two turtles,/ 5(And) it looks as if they are thinking of a place to sleep./ 6(And) when the air became colder/ 7(And) the water becomes colder,/ 8when you no that winter is on the way./ 9when all of a sudden thing begin to turn white,/ 10(but) some day autumn will be back./ 11(And) the leaves and trees will be a bright color red and yellow.

We now find that the student has written eleven T-units, of which the average length in words is 11.90. This appraisal seems a great deal more accurate than the former.

On the basis of a chi-square analysis applied to the four variables which may be used to measure growth in student writing ability -- sentence length, clause length, subordination ratio, or T-unit length -- W. Kellogg Hunt found that the best predictor of grade level ability (from fourth grade level to twelfth grade level) was the mean T-unit length, with mean clause length, subordination ratio, and sentence length ranked in descending order.

It was considered, then, that the mean length of T-units in the writing samples would be the best indicator of student growth in writing maturity throughout the experimental period. All of the pre-and post-writing samples of control and experimental groups were broken down into T-units as previously described, and the mean T-unit length for each student was calculated.

Some rather outstanding problems were seen, however, when the mean T-unit lengths for the pre-writing samples were compared with the mean T-unit lengths for the post-writing samples. For instance, over 30 percent of the students in the experimental group showed a negative gain in average length of T-unit in the writing sample during the year. After checking over the writing samples, we found that some students had written as little as one sentence of twenty-three words for the pre-writing sample during the class period allotted. In the post-writing samples, the same students had written longer compositions, but in over 30 percent of the cases, the average T-unit length was shorter for the post-writing sample than it was for the pre-writing sample.

For example, here are the pre- and post-writing samples for one student from the experimental group.

Fall

> The bright red and yellow lease fall, the morning is crispt and claer will tell us it is fall. (Topic Sentence)/ [1]When I go outside I see all the bright colored leaves and all the bird geting ready to fly south for the winder./

Summer

> The hot summer weather is here again, school is almost finished for the year, and I am looking forward to many of the pleasures of summer vacation, and not the work. (Topic Sentence)/ [1]I like to fish is a stream where there's no bug or insects like mosito's and ants./ [2]Where I go fishing I feel lazy and sleeply./ [3]These work too like like mowing the lawn and weeding the garden./

The student's contribution in the pre-writing sample is one T-unit of 23 words in length. His post-writing sample consists of three T-units of 17 words, 9 words, and 11 words, giving him a total contribution of 37 words with an average T-unit length of 12.33 words. Although he has obviously dropped in mean T-unit length from the pre-writing sample to the post-writing sample, we didn't feel satisfied that the first sample was superior to the second sample.

In order to allow for the simple factor of number of words in the writing samples (the students were told to write a composition during the class period allotted; there was no maximum number of words demanded), it was decided to weight the average T-units in the writing sample by multiplying the number of length of the average T-unit by 1 if the words in the sample ranged from 0 to 25 words; 2, for 26 to 50 words; 3, for 51 to 75 words; 4, for 76 to 100 words; and 5, for 100 plus words.

Thus for the student just discussed, since his pre-writing sample contained just one T-unit of 23 words, his converted score would be 23 X 1, or 23. On the other hand, his post-writing sample contained three T-units for a total of 37 words and an average T-unit of 12.33 X 2, for a converted score of 24.66, which seemed like a more realistic appraisal of his gain in sentence sense during the year from the two writing samples.

All of the numbers of the length of the average T-units of the writing samples were then converted, and the *t* test for the comparison of means and standard deviations of test scores was applied. The results are reported in section *3. Results*.

Although there was negative gain for the length of average T-units for many of the students, some students made considerable individual gains, and, in some cases, rather spectacular gains. Here are the pre- and post-writing samples for one student in the linguistic group.

Autumn

> The bright red and yellow leaves fall, the mornings grow cold and the scent of autumn fills the air. (Topic Sentence)/ [1]The leaves flutter carelessly down from the golden colored tree's,/ [2](and) the wind swoops them up in a big gust./ [3]The squirrels and chipmunks scurry around gathering nuts for the soon coming winter./ [4]Overhead ducks fly, trying to find a pond where the can rest./ [5]The deer walk by so carefully/ [6]not one fallen leaf moves./ [7]The aroma from a distant house brings the pleasent odors of roast turkey and pumkin pie./

For the pre-writing sample, the student contributed a composition of 70 words with an average T-unit length of 10.00 and a converted score of 3 X 10.00 or 30.00.

Summer Fun

> The hot summer weather is here again, school is almost finished for the year, and I am looking forward to the many pleasures of summer vacation. (Topic Sentence)/ [1]One thing I enjoy most about summer is going swimming./ [2]On a very hot, humid, dry day, when the bugs are as thick as molasses, it's very refreshing to go to the beach./ [3]To lay on the white sand, with cool, glimmering water lapping at my feet, and the nice cool breeze blowing the big green trees and the crisp grass, with the sea-gulls smoothly and listlessly flying overhead, is my idea of a restful afternoon./ [4]Noisy crowds and men selling food and cool beverages also add to the summer atmosphere./
>
> /[5]The most refreshing part of the beach through,

> is dipping smoothly into the lake, and feeling the cool,
> crisp water brushing against my hot, sweaty body,
> after having been laying out in the bright sun trying
> to get a tan, but only succeeding to burning my back/
> 6Then, to slowly glide through the water, and feel
> the sun strike down on my refreshed body is pure
> delight./ 7Of all the ways to enjoy my self during
> summer vacation, I find swimming is my favorite.

The post-writing sample contains 175 words, 7 T-units with an average T-unit length of 25.00 words,and a converted score of 25.00 X 5, or 125.00. Not only was the average T-unit longer in the post-writing sample, but the writing was considerably more mature than that of the pre-writing sample.

The data collected was organized and analyzed according to TABLE I: the results are reported in section 3. Results.

TABLE I

TREATMENT OF DATA

Data	Groups		Treatment
II. STEP Writing Test, 3A	Linguistic	Control	*t* test
III. STEP Writing Test, 3A STEP Writing Test, 3B	Linguistic	Linguistic	*t* test
IV. STEP Writing Test, 3A STEP Writing Test, 3B	Control	Control	*t* test
V. GAIN, STEP Writing Test, 3A STEP Writing Test, 3B	Linguistic	Control	*t* test
VI. Pre-Writing Sample, Mean T-unit length	Linguistic	Control	*t* test
VII. Pre-Writing Sample, Post-Writing Sample, Mean T-unit length	Linguistic	Linguistic	*t* test
VIII. Pre-Writing Sample, Post-Writing Sample, Mean T-unit length	Control	Control	*t* test
IX. Post-Writing Sample, Mean T-unit length	Linguistic	Control	*t* test
X. GAIN, Post-Writing Sample, Mean T-unit length	Linguistic	Control	*t* test
XI. Pre-Writing Sample, Converted scores, Mean T-unit length	Linguistic	Control	*t* test
XII. Pre-Writing Sample, Post-Writing Sample, Converted scores, Mean T-unit length	Linguistic	Linguistic	*t* test
XIII. Pre-Writing Sample, Post-Writing Sample, Converted scores, Mean T-unit length	Control	Control	*t* test
XIV. Post-Writing Sample, Converted scores, Mean T-unit length	Linguistic	Control	*t* test
XV. GAIN, Post-Writing Sample, Converted scores, Mean T-unit length	Linguistic	Control	*t* test

Summary

The Director prepared linguistic materials and exercises designed to provide seventh-grade students with an understanding of how to analyze English sentences by a structural grammar approach and of how to create and combine new sentences by a generative-transformational approach. It was intended that the students in the experimental classes, after such instruction, would write longer and more mature sentences. The linguistic materials were field-tested and then revised and rewritten. For the study itself forty-three students were given the experimental linguistically-oriented materials, and fifty students were given traditional English grammar instruction. One teacher taught both experimental and control groups. The new ideas for each lesson were presented by the teacher; the exercises were done in the classroom itself by the students, with explanations and suggestions given by the teacher. As pre-tests, all students were given the STEP Writing Test, 3A, and contributed a pre-writing sample, which was completed during one class period. As post-tests, all students took the STEP Writing Test, 3B, and produced a post-writing sample, which was again completed during one class period. The _t_ test of significance was the basic statistical treatment applied to the STEP Writing Test, 3A and 3B, scores. Since many of the pre-writing samples were shorter in number of words than were the post-writing samples, the average T-unit lengths were weighted and converted by multiplying the number of the length of the average T-unit by 1 if the words in the sample ranged from 0 to 25 words; 2, for 26 to 50 words; 3, for 51 to 75 words; 4, for 76 to 100 words; and 5, for 100 plus words. The _t_ test of significance was also applied to the average length of T-units for each writing sample and to the converted scores of the average length of T-units.

3. RESULTS

TABLE II shows a comparison of the means and standard deviations of the linguistic and control groups for the STEP Writing Test, 3A, scores. It is evident that in terms of this standardized test that the linguistic group is significantly higher in achievement than is the control group. The two groups represented intact classes previously assigned in a public junior high school; therefore it is not surprising that in terms of this standardized test the groups were significantly different in achievement.

TABLE II

A COMPARISON OF THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE LINGUISTIC GROUP AND THE CONTROL GROUP OF THE SCORES OF THE STEP WRITING TEST, 3A

Group	N	M	S.D.	
Linguistic, STEP Writing, 3A	43	34.5	8.5	t=6.4 Sig. at .01
Control, STEP Writing, 3A	50	24.1	6.6	

A comparison of the means and standard deviations of the linguistic group and the control group with respect to the pre- and post-test scores for the STEP Writing Test, 3A and 3B, in TABLES II and III, shows that both groups made significant gains in achievement in terms of this test during the period of the study. It should be noted that the standard deviation of the control group increased during the study while the standard deviation of the linguistic group decreased.

TABLE III

A COMPARISON OF THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE LINGUISTIC GROUP ON THE PRE- AND POST-TEST SCORES OF THE STEP WRITING TESTS, 3A AND 3B

Group	N	M	S.D.	
Linguistic, STEP Writing, 3A	43	34.5	8.5	t=2.7 Sig. at .01
Linguistic, STEP Writing, 3B	43	39.3	7.9	

TABLE IV

A COMPARISON OF THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE CONTROL GROUP ON THE PRE- AND POST-TEST SCORES OF THE STEP WRITING TESTS, 3A AND 3B

Group	N	M	S.D.	
Control, STEP Writing, 3A	50	24.1	6.6	t=3.9 Sig. at .01
Control, STEP Writing, 3B	50	30.0	8.6	

Since the linguistic group was significantly higher than the control group in terms of the STEP Writing Tests, 3B, a study of the pre- to post-gain scores of both linguistic and control groups should reveal a more meaningful comparison.

TABLE V

A COMPARISON OF THE PRE- TO POST-GAIN SCORES OF THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE LINGUISTIC GROUP AND THE CONTROL GROUP OF THE SCORES OF THE STEP WRITING TEST

Group	N	M	S.D.	
Linguistic, Gain scores of STEP Writing Test	43	4.9	5.5	t=.9 N.S. at .05
Control, Gain scores of STEP Writing Test	50	5.9	5.4	

A comparison of the gain scores of the means and standard deviations of the STEP Writing Test, of the linguistic and control groups in TABLE V,shows that there was no significant difference in gain between the two groups.

Because some students had missed one or another of the writing samples, some students had moved away, and some students had been assigned to other classes during the study, the number of students who contributed writing samples was thrity-nine in the linguistic group and forty-five in the control group

TABLE VI

A COMPARISON OF THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE LINGUISTIC GROUP AND THE CONTROL GROUP OF THE MEAN LENGTH OF THE T-UNITS OF THE PRE-WRITING SAMPLES

Group	N	M	S.D.	
Linguistic, T-units of pre-writing samples	39	11.5	2.3	t=.9 N.S. at .05
Control, T-units of pre-writing samples	45	11.0	2.9	

TABLE VI presents a comparison of the means and standard deviations of the linguistic and control group with regard to the mean length of the T-units of the pre-writing samples. There is no significant difference between the length of the mean T-units at the beginning of the study as this table shows. Since the linguistic group was significantly higher in achievement on the STEP Writing Test, 3A, scores than the control group, it should be emphasized that there is no significance difference between the groups with respect to the mean length of T-units from the pre-writing samples. Possibly the STEP Writing Test and the T-units measure two unrelated elements in the writing process.

TABLE VII

A COMPARISON OF THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE LINGUISTIC GROUP OF THE MEAN LENGTH OF THE T-UNITS OF THE PRE- AND POST-WRITING SAMPLES

Group	N	M	S.D.	
Linguistic, T-units of pre-writing samples	39	11.5	2.3	t=3.0 Sig. at .01
Linguistic, T-units of post-writing samples	39	13.3	3.1	

A comparison of the means and standard deviations of the linguistic group and control group of the mean length of the T-units of the pre- and post-writing samples, in TABLES VII and VIII, shows that both groups made significant gains in achievement during the period of the study.

TABLE VIII

A COMPARISON OF THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE CONTROL GROUP OF THE MEAN LENGTH OF THE T-UNITS OF THE PRE- AND POST-WRITING SAMPLES

Group	N	M	S.D.	
Control, T-units of pre-writing samples	45	11.0	2.9	t=3.0 Sig. at .01
Control T-units of post-writing samples	45	12.8	2.9	

As shown in TABLE IX, a comparison of the means and standard deviations of the linguistic and control groups of the mean length of the T-units of the post-writing samples, the linguistic group made a slightly higher gain than did the control, but the difference in gain was not significant.

TABLE IX

A COMPARISON OF THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE LINGUISTIC GROUP AND THE CONTROL GROUP OF THE MEAN LENGTH OF THE T-UNITS OF THE POST-WRITING SAMPLES

Group	N	M	S.D.	
Linguistic, T-units of post-writing samples	39	13.3	3.1	t=.8 N. S. at .05
Control, T-units of post-writing samples	45	12.8	2.9	

A comparison of the pre- to post-gain scores of the means and standard deviations of the linguistic group and the control group of the mean length of the T-units of the writing samples, in TABLE X, also shows that although the linguistic group made a slightly higher gain than did the control group, the gain was not significant.

TABLE X

A COMPARISON OF THE PRE- TO POST-GAIN SCORES OF THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE LINGUISTIC GROUP AND THE CONTROL GROUP OF THE MEAN LENGTH OF THE T-UNITS OF THE WRITING SAMPLES

Group	N	M	S.D.	
Linguistic, Gain scores of T-units	39	1.9	3.8	t=.1 N.S. at .05
Control, Gain scores of T-units	45	1.8	3.4	

Because there was a wide range in the number of words found in some of the pre-writing samples, particularly those in the control group, it was decided to convert the T-unit scores by weighting the average T-units in the writing samples by multiplying the number of the average T-unit by 1 if the number of words in the sample ranged from 0 to 25; 2, for 26 to 50 words; 3, for 51 to 75 words; 4, for 76 to 100 words; and 5, for 100 plus words. The converted scores were then analyzed.

TABLE XI, a comparison of the means and standard deviations of the linguistic and control group of the converted scores of the mean length of the T-units of the pre-writing samples, shows that at the beginning of the study, the linguistic group had significantly higher converted mean T-units than did the control group. This greater achievement of the linguistic group at the beginning of the study was probably due to the greater length of the pre-writing samples by the linguistic group, which became evident when the T-unit scores were converted.

TABLE XI

A COMPARISON OF THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE LINGUISTIC GROUP AND THE CONTROL GROUP OF THE CONVERTED SCORES OF THE MEAN LENGTH OF THE T-UNITS OF THE PRE-WRITING SAMPLES

Group	N	M	S.D.	
Linguistic, Converted scores, Mean T-unit length of pre-writing samples	39	47.2	17.3	t=2.1 Sig. at .05
Control, Converted scores, Mean T-unit length of pre-writing samples	45	39.2	17.9	

A comparison of the means and standard deviations of the linguistic group and the control group of the converted scores of the mean length of the T-units of the pre- and post-writing samples, in TABLES XII and XIII, shows that both groups made significant gains in achievement during the period of the study. The greater gain made by the control group may be due to the comparatively longer post-writing samples contributed by that group.

TABLE XII

A COMPARISON OF THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE LINGUISTIC GROUP OF THE CONVERTED SCORES OF THE MEAN LENGTH OF THE T-UNITS OF THE PRE- AND POST-WRITING SAMPLES

Group	N	M	S.D.	
Linguistic, Converted scores, Mean T-unit length of pre-writing samples	39	47.2	17.3	t=4.67 Sig. at .01
Linguistic, Converted scores, Mean T-unit length of post-writing samples	39	65.4	17.0	

TABLE XIII

A COMPARISON OF THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE CONTROL GROUP OF THE CONVERTED SCORES OF THE T-UNITS OF THE PRE- AND POST-WRITING SAMPLES

Group	N	M	S.D.	
Control, Converted scores, Mean-T-unit length of pre-writing samples	45	39.2	17.9	t=6.55 Sig. at .01
Control, Converted scores, Mean T-unit length of post-writing samples	45	61.3	13.7	

TABLE XIV presents a comparison of the means and standard deviations of the linguistic group and the control group of the converted scores of the mean length of the T-units of the post-writing samples. Although the linguistic group gained more than did the control group, the difference was not significant.

TABLE XIV

A COMPARISON OF THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE LINGUISTIC GROUP AND THE CONTROL GROUP OF THE CONVERTED SCORES OF THE MEAN LENGTH OF THE T-UNITS OF THE POST-WRITING SAMPLES

Group	N	M	S.D.	
Linguistic, Converted scores, Mean T-unit length of post-writing samples	39	65.4	17.0	t=1.2 N.S. at .05
Control, Converted scores, Mean T-unit length of post-writing samples	45	61.3	13.7	

TABLE XV shows a comparison of the pre- to post-gain of the means and standard deviations of the linguistic and control groups of the converted scores of the length of the mean T-units of the writing samples. The control group made a higher gain than did the linguistic group, however the difference in gain was not significant.

TABLE XV

A COMPARISON OF THE PRE- TO POST-GAIN OF THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE LINGUISTIC GROUP AND THE CONTROL GROUP OF THE CONVERTED SCORES OF THE MEAN LENGTH OF THE T-UNITS OF THE WRITING SAMPLES

Group	N	M	S.D.	
Linguistic, Gain converted T-unit scores	39	17.4	25.0	t=1.1 N.S. at .05
Control, Gain converted T-unit scores	45	22.8	20.8	

The results indicated that the linguistic group was significantly higher in achievement than was the control group at the beginning of the study with respect to the STEP Writing Test, 3A. While both groups made significant gains in achievement in terms of this standardized test during the study, the linguistic group made higher gains, although the gains were not significant. The results also indicated that there was no difference between the mean length of the T-units of the writing samples for both groups at the beginning of the study. Although the linguistic group made a slightly higher gain in the mean length of the T-units during the period of the study, this difference was not significant. A comparison of the pre- to post-gain scores of the length of the T-units also revealed substantially the same result. A study of the converted scores of the mean length of the T-units of both groups showed that the linguistic group had significantly higher mean converted T-units than did the control group at the beginning of the study. After the study, however, the difference was not significant. A comparison of the pre- to post-gain of the converted scores of the mean length of T-units of the linguistic and control groups revealed that there was no significant difference between the gain in the converted length of mean T-units after the study.

The null hypothesis was thereby sustained: as measured by a standardized test, the mean length of T-units in writing samples, and converted scores of those same average T-units to account for length of writing samples, there is no significant difference in student ability to write compositions between students who have materials based upon structural and generative grammar and students who have traditional Latinate grammar instruction.

Summary

A t test applied to the scores of the STEP Writing Test, 3A, for the students in both groups revealed that the linguistic group was significantly higher than the control group. The results of a t test applied to the STEP Writing Test, 3A, and the STEP Writing Test, 3B, showed that both groups made significant gains in achievement. The linguistic group also made significantly higher scores on the post-test STEP Writing Test, 3B, than did the control group; however, a comparison of the gain scores of the two groups revealed that, although the linguistic group had made a significantly higher gain over the period of the study, there was no significant difference in the gain between the two groups.

A t test applied to the mean length of the T-units of the pre-writing samples demonstrated that there was no significant difference between the two groups at the beginning of the study. The linguistic group made a slightly higher gain in the length of the mean T-units over the period of the study than did the control group, but the gain was not significant. A comparison of pre- to post-gain scores of the two groups revealed essentially the same results.

Because there was a wide range in the number of words found in some of the pre-writing samples, particularly those in the control group, it was decided to weight the number of the average T-units in the writing samples by multiplying the number of the average T-unit by 1 if the number of words in the sample ranged from 0 to 25; 2, for 26 to 50 words; 3, for 51 to 75 words; 4, for 76 to 100 words; and 5, for 100 plus words. The converted scores were then analyzed. In terms of converted scores of the mean length of the T-units of the pre-writing samples, the linguistic group had significantly higher scores than did the control group. This greater achievement of the linguistic group at the beginning of the study was probably due to the greater length of the pre-writing samples by the linguistic group. Both groups made significant gains in converted scores of mean T-unit length; the difference, however, was not significant. A study of the gain in the converted scores of the mean T-unit length showed that, although the control group had made a slightly higher gain than did the linguistic group, the gain was not significant.

4. DISCUSSION

The original aim of this exploratory study was to determine whether or not students would show increased maturity in writing as measured by the mean length of T-units in writing samples after instruction in materials based upon selected aspects of structural and generative grammars. Although there was no significant difference between the mean length of T-units for students in the linguistic group and for students in the control group after the study, the writer believes that another study, following the same theoretical basis and controlling more carefully some of the factors, would show a significant positive correlation. The one, overall impression that remained with the writer after the study and the analysis of the data was the enormous complexity involved in attempting to measure in objective terms writing improvement.

The following factors, in the judgment of the writer, tended to limit the results of the study.

1. The teacher who taught the linguistic materials found that she needed more time than was planned to assimilate the new ideas and approaches.

2. Although the students adapted to unique information and new techniques and seemed to enjoy the linguistic materials once they were understood, they nevertheless could not comprehend the lessons as easily as it was first anticipated.

3. More time than was originally planned was needed to present the linguistically-oriented materials. Three or four class periods were needed for each lesson, of which there were nineteen. Such a period of time would comprise almost half of the normal public school year of forty weeks. With instruction in literature and other normal junior high school activities, there was simply not enough time for the students to understand and to be able to manipulate the linguistic materials. It is recommended that a future study of this nature require at least two academic years.

4. For the study, the teacher was given lessons explaining linguistic concepts and exercises of from one to three parts. The students were given only the exercises to work on and keep. It would seem more effective if all of the students had individual copies of the explanatory lessons to study and to keep.

5. One serious problem was observed in collecting the writing samples. For the study, the students were asked to write a paragraph

at school within the limit of the class period for pre- and post-writing samples. This resulted in writing samples ranging from one sentence of twenty-four words to samples of paragraphs of more than one-hundred and fifty words. A need was seen to have a uniform number of words for each sample. For a future study, three or four pre- and post-writing samples might be collected, and a random sample of approximately one-hundred words could be identified and analyzed.

6. There was an unnerving lack of correlation between student performance on the standardized writing tests and the mean length of T-units from the writing samples. The linguistic group scored significantly higher than did the control group on the pre-standardized writing test, but there was no significant difference between the length of the mean T-units for the two groups from both the pre- and post-writing samples. It may be possible that what is measured by this particular standardized writing test has very little relation to the ability of the student to write longer, more complex, and more mature sentences. Another inference may be that while we have assumed that students who score higher on standardized tests are better writers than those who score lower, in actuality, such students who score lower on a standardized writing test may, in fact, write as mature sentences as do those students who score significantly higher on certain standardized writing tests.

7. The time actually expended in analyzing the data from the writing samples was simply much longer than had been anticipated. The T-units for each writing sample had to be identified, fragments and "garbles" (unintelligible groups of words) omitted, the number of words for each T-unit tallied, the mean T-unit for each sample computed, and all of the mean T-units converted to allow for glaring discrepancies in the number of words in the samples. In the future, students could be matched by some external criterion, and a smaller number of writing samples could be analyzed.

8. In the exploratory study, fairly extensive materials on the identification of form class and structure words were presented at the beginning of the study to the students in the linguistic group. It is now the conviction of the writer that this was the reverse approach to use with students to help them become adept at manipulating syntactic patterns in their writing. The approach of moving from single words to phrases and clauses seems too closely related to the traditional approach of identifying parts of speech and then moving to larger units of language. A future study of the nature of this exploratory study should start with the students manipulating linguistic units larger than the single word and then learning to identify form class and structure words after dexterity in manipulating phrases and clauses has been achieved.

9. Another rather disquieting observation from the exploratory study was the fact that many students had a negative gain in the length of T-units over the period of the study. Some students, in other words, wrote longer mean T-units at the beginning of the study than they did at the end. It would seem that there are still other factors and variables which have not been identified yet in this complex, psychological act of writing which need to be accounted for in the future. In spite of the problems encountered in this study, however, the writer thinks that the T-unit can become a reliable and objective means for measuring growth in writing maturity. Notwithstanding the results of this exploratory study, the writer maintains that students who have an insight into how they and professional writers manipulate syntactic patterns and who have much practice in creating new and varied linguistic patterns, will write longer and more mature sentences. Such a hypothesis, for reasons thus advanced, was not adequately tested.

5. CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

This exploratory study was conducted to determine the effectiveness of English language instruction, using materials adapted from structural and generative grammars, upon the ability of students to write more mature compositions. The study was originally intended to test the relationship between such language instruction and the students' ability to understand poetry and short fiction; but because of limitations during the actual study, the problem was delimited to include only the relationship between modern grammar study and student writing improvement. The actual study was also limited to seventh-grade students only, not seventh- and eighth-grade students. All students were given pre- and post-standardized writing tests and contributed pre- and post-writing samples. The linguistic group was given materials designed to give the students an understanding of how to analyze English sentences by a structural grammar approach and of how to create and combine new sentences by a generative-transformational approach.

The linguistic group was significantly higher in achievement on the scores of the standardized writing test. Both groups made significantly higher scores on this test after the study; the experimental group, as would be expected, also made significantly higher scores on the post-standardized writing test. With relation to the mean length of the T-units from the writing samples, there was no significant difference between the two groups at the beginning of the study. Although the linguistic group made slightly higher gains in the length of T-units after the study than did the control group, the gain was not significant. When the numbers of mean length of T-units were converted by weighting according to the number of words in the writing sample it was shown that, although the control group had made a slightly higher gain than did the linguistic group, the gain in the converted scores of the length of the T-units was not significant.

The null hypothesis was thereby sustained: as measured by a standardized writing test, the mean length of T-units in writing samples, and by converted scores of these same average T-units to account for the length of writing samples, there is no significant difference in student ability to write compositions between students who have materials based upon structural and generative grammars and students who have traditional Latinate grammar instruction.

Implications

It is the opinion of the writer that the theoretical formulations of the present exploratory study are still valid; for reasons previously cited in the section DISCUSSION, the original hypothesis was not adequately tested. Although the effectiveness of a phrase- and clause-building approach to writing based upon the most appropriate knowledge to be gained from structural and generative grammars has not been substantiated, it has not been disproved either. It may be that there is no correlation between a student's knowledge of grammar -- any grammar, be it Latinate, structural, or generative-transformational -- and his ability to write longer, more complex, and more mature sentences; the writer prefers to think, however, that the ways of isolating and controlling the numerous physical and psychological factors in such studies that may help to disprove such a hypothesis have still eluded us.

Recommendations

On the basis of the experience gained from conducting and of analyzing the data from this exploratory study, the writer wishes to make the following recommendations:

1. Future studies should be conducted with students at many different grade and ability levels in which much attention is given to a sentence-combining approach to creating new sentences based upon insights gained from generative-transformational grammars. The appropriateness of certain types of knowledge and techniques is yet to be determined. Such exercises, for instance, could be used in the elementary grades without formal, verbal descriptions of terms and activities.

2. A concerted attempt should be made to determine how the T-unit can be made to serve in a more accurate and objective manner as a criterion for judging more mature writing after special instruction.

3. After more objective devices have been developed for measuring growth in student writing, attention should be given to the differences in linguistic structures among such varied modes as narration, description, exposition, and persuasion or among such modes as fiction, non-fiction, and poetry.

4. Finally, besides activities leading to an adept manipulation of linguistic patterns, information which provides students with specific and accurate tools for analyzing syntax in student and professional writing and literature of all kinds should be an integral part of the general English language curriculum.

6. REFERENCES

1. Bateman, Donald R. "Speculations Concerning Symbolism, The Communications Core, Language," Studies in English Bulletin Number One. Columbus, Ohio: Center for School Experimentation, College of Education. 1959.

2. Brown, Roger, and Bellugi, Ursula. "Three Processes in the Child's Acquisition of Syntax," Harvard Educational Review. 34, Spring 1964. p. 133-151.

3. Christensen, Francis. "A Generative Rhetoric of the Paragraph," College Composition and Communication. XVI, October 1965. p. 144-156.

4. ________. "A Generative Rhetoric of the Sentence," College Composition and Communication. XIV, October 1963. p. 155-161.

5. Fries, Charles Carpenter. The Structure of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc. 1952. 304p.

6. Gleason, H. A., Jr. "What Grammar?" Harvard Educational Review. 34, Spring 1964. p. 267-281.

7. ________. "What Is English?" College Composition and Communication. XIII, October 1962. p. 1-10.

8. Grady, Michael. "Structured Structuralism: Composition and Modern Linguistics," English Journal. 54, October 1965. p. 633-639.

9. Hunt, W. Kellogg. Differences in Grammatical Structures Written at Three Grade Levels, The Structures To Be Analyzed by Transformational Methods. Unpublished report, Cooperative Research Project No. 1998, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. June 1964. 152p.

10. ________. "Introduction," Harvard Educational Review. 34, Spring 1964. p. 131-132.

11. Ives, Sumner. "Linguistics in the Classroom," College English. 17, December 1955. p. 165-172.

12. Joos, Martin. "Language and the School Child," Harvard Educational Review. 34, Spring 1964. p. 203-210.

13. Lees, Robert B. "The Promise of Transformational Grammar," The English Journal. LII, May 1963. p. 327-330.

14. Roberts, Paul. English Sentences. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc. 1962. 294p.

15. ________. "Linguistics and the Teaching of Composition," The English Journal. LII, May 1963. p. 331-335.

16. ________. "The Relation of Linguistics to the Teaching of English," College English. 22, October 1960. p. 1-9.

17. Whitehall, Harold. Structural Essentials of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc. 1951. 154p.

18. Zidonis, Frank J. "Generative Grammar: A Report on Research," English Journal. 54, May 1965. p. 405-409.

APPENDIX A

LESSON ONE: What is Grammar?

There are many ways of talking about grammar. Some people say that the following is "bad" grammar:

He don't want to come.
She ain't my friend.

Can you think of any other examples of such "bad" grammar?

Actually, such sentences demonstrate what we call a level of usage; that is, these sentences are "used" by a certain group of people who have not been highly educated. Highly educated people, for instance, would say the sentences in the following way:

He doesn't want to come.
She isn't my friend.

The first group of sentences really does not represent "bad" or "incorrect" grammar because these sentences are said by people who have spoken English all their lives--native speakers of English--and other speakers of English could understand them. Now notice these sentences:

Doesn't to come he want.
My friend isn't she.

Although both of these sentences have the "correct" forms, they very definitely represent "bad" grammar. No native speaker of English would even use such sentences. What we have frequently called "bad" grammar then is really only a matter of what different types of people use--what we should call usage.

Are you afraid of grammar? Do you think it is impossible to learn? Would you be surprised to find out that you already know all about English grammar? Of course you do, because you speak English and have spoken it so that others have understood you since you were quite young. Actually you learned all the basic rules for making English sentences by the time you were four or five years old. We're not sure how you learned such a complicated process, but you did, and linguists--those who study language scientifically--are only now beginning to find out how the process takes place.

If you're not convinced that you know English grammar well, look at the following sentences:

1. The cat chased the mouse.
2. Chased the cat the mouse.
3. She doesn't believe me.
4. Me doesn't she believe.
5. School will probably let out after the assembly.
6. After the assembly probably will let out school.

Of course, sentences 1, 3 and 5 are grammatical, and sentences 2, 4 and 6 are ungrammatical. Can you tell why they are not grammatical? You may not know all the terms, but you can easily identify the grammatical sentences.

Now look at this sentence:

My dog Penny prefers to drive a Honda to a motorcycle.

Is this sentence grammatical? Yes, it is, but it is also nonsense although it does conform to the general rules for making English sentences. The term "grammar" does not apply to sentences spoken by native speakers of English who are not highly educated, nor does "grammar" have to do with a sentence "making sense" or being "true". The word "grammar", for our purpose, means building sentences which would be used by native speakers of English.

If you already know how to say grammatical English sentences, then you may ask, "Why should I bother to study grammar now?" First, you have learned only the basic rules for making grammatical English sentences. Now you must begin a study which should last the rest of your life to understand how you can create new and interesting sentences in your speaking and writing. A conscious study of your grammar should help you with this. Second, if, while studying English grammar, you have a lot of practice in writing new and varied sentences, you should be able to write more mature compositions. Third, even if your study of grammar doesn't help you with reading and writing, it will help you to understand one of the most important topics that you can know about: the study of how you communicate through language with other people.

LESSON ONE: What is Grammar?

Exercise A. Before the following groups of words, write G if the words represent a grammatical sentence, or write U if the words represent an ungrammatical sentence. Don't be fooled by nonsense words; if they follow the scheme of English sentences, then they are grammatical. Above each ungrammatical group of words, write a sentence which would be correct. Be prepared to give reasons for your choices.

1. I swam the Atlantic Ocean in one day.
2. Spheroid a baseball is.
3. Sailed the Pacific Ocean I.
4. Superman is the principal of our school.
5. All boys juppled the corstan.
6. Purple cats make the best kind of first basemen.
7. Willie Mays a great baseball player becomes.
8. Me don't like peanut butter on bananas.
9. Flobleys frequently spuggle with the greatest of ease.
10. Vinegar and spice are of made little girls.
11. Our league the football team win will.
12. Puppy dog tails are made of and pizza pies big boys.
13. Weren't you learned any better than that?
14. We weren't surprised when James Bond was chosen Miss America.
15. Gloops would rather globble than fletch.
16. The great secret agent James Bond is.
17. He just didn't know no better than to pour raspberry jam all over the cat.
18. My pet hamster is the best student in our class.
19. Wouldn't you blobber have a syntrax than obey lother doff?
20. To be on the honor roll not an honor just it is if a grind greasy are you.

LESSON TWO: Grammar and Usage

We have seen that the term "grammar" refers to how sentences are put together by native speakers of English. Grammar does not necessarily refer to the meaning of a sentence. For example, the sentence "A baseball is rectangular", is grammatical but nonsensical. The group of words, "Sailed the Atlantic Ocean I", presents an idea which makes sense, but it is not grammatical.

If this were all there were to the problem of grammar, you would have no trouble telling grammatical sentences from ungrammatical sentences. To make the problem more complicated, however, some people have mixed up the term "grammar" with that of "usage". Notice these sentences. Are they grammatical or not?

1. He done his work.
2. Henry brung his mother some flowers.
3. He don't do nothing right.
4. Me and Eddie grabbed him and throwed him out.
5. I like mine better than yourn.

From what we have just learned, we know that these sentences are grammatical. They are spoken by native speakers of English and are understood by other speakers of English. Such sentences, though, are sometimes incorrectly labeled "bad grammar" because highly educated people would not talk like this. They would say the following:

1. He did his work.
2. Henry brought his mother some flowers.
3. He doesn't do anything right.
4. Eddie and I took him and threw him out.
5. I like mine better than yours.

With respect to their use of language, people can be divided roughly into two categories. The formal level includes the speech used by highly educated people while the illiterate level would apply to the speech of uneducated people, people who simply had not had the chance to hear or to learn formal English. To these two levels of usage--which are both "correct" grammar, as we mean the word "grammar"--we add a third level of English which we will call ungrammatical. Notice these sentences.

1. George climbed the mountain for his girl.

2. George clumb the mountain for his girl.

3. George his girl climbed the mountain.

Sentence 1 represents the formal level of usage, sentence 2 represents the illiterate level, but sentence 3 is clearly ungrammatical. Why do we prefer sentence 1 to sentence 2? Is sentence 1 clearer? Is the sound of the words better in sentence 2? We prefer sentence 1 simply because we associate it with educated people, and we associate sentence 2 with uneducated people.

This is an important fact about our language: educated people do not say sentence 1, "George climbed the mountain for his girl", because it is better than sentence 2. On the other hand, educated people say it, and that makes it better. There are no rules of logic involved. If you want to be thought educated, then you should learn the formal level of usage. If you wish to join the business, professional, or academic world, then you should try to master this first level of usage.

It is important to note that there is nothing wrong with level two. The language used by these people is capable of expressing a great deal of force, clarity, and tenderness. Many of our original folksongs represent the illiterate level. During the great depression in the 1930's when highly educated people could not find jobs, farmers and other workers who used the second level of usage ate regularly. To point out the apparent contradiction here, Will Rogers, the humorist, said:

"Them that don't say 'ain't', ain't eating."

Such a situation can still exist, but people who use level one still tend to look down their noses at people who use level two. This is rather snobbish, but it is nevertheless true.

There is still another problem involved in the distinction between levels of usage and grammar.

1. Who are you going with?
2. Evelyn wanted to really help with the dance.
3. You will go to school today!
4. Can I go to the movies?

Sentence 1 ends with a preposition and uses "who" instead of "whom". In sentence 2 the word "really" comes between the words "to" and "help"; this is called a split infinitive. Sentence 3 uses "will" instead of "shall", and sentence 4 uses "can" instead of "may". Some individuals who are very fussy would prefer the following:

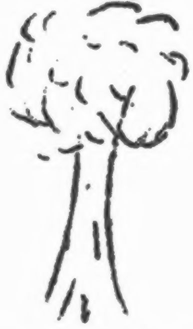
1. With whom are you going?
2. Evelyn really wanted to help with the dance.
3. You shall go to school today!
4. May I go to the movies?

Without a doubt, the original sentences are grammatical, but do they represent level one or level two of English? The answer to such a question lies in your ability to listen to educated speakers and to learn how they use our language. Obviously, "Who are you going with?" is not comparable to "George clumb the mountain for his girl." In fact, some educated people would state that the sentence, "With whom are you going?" is too formal and artificial. In any event, you should learn the difference between these levels of usage. It is necessary to remember that the first group of sentences are not ungrammatical, except in a very trivial way. There are more serious matters to worry about.

If you already know whether English sentences are grammatical or not and you only need to be able to tell the difference between usage level one and that of usage level two, why do you need to bother with written English at all? You must, because serious written English is quite a different thing from spoken English.

We might even call written English a dialect--or special type--of spoken English. We might say that spoken language represents reality once removed while written language represents reality twice removed.

1.



The real object.

2.

"t-r-e-e-"

The sounds in English stand for the real object.

3.

TREE

The written symbols which stand for sounds which, in turn, stand for a real object.

With written English we must all learn and agree upon a common set of vocabulary, spelling, and grammatical pattern, not because they are "correct", but because they are efficient. If we didn't all agree on the general conventions of the English language, we wouldn't be able to communicate with each other.

For instance, a person can say the words, "you can come", and he can use the rising and falling of his voice, the loudness of his voice, and the use of gesture to demonstrate exactly what he means. In written language, however, he must use symbols that we all agree on to make his meaning clear.

1. "You can come?" she asked hesitantly.
2. "You can come," he said, as he let the rest of us go and pointed to me.
3. "You can come!" he yelled when I shook my head.

The real problem in learning how to write serious English is to change over from spoken language to the use of conventional symbols and patterns. This means much practice and careful attention, but anyone with average intelligence and a certain desire can learn to write English competently.

LESSON TWO: Grammar and Usage

Exercise 1. Before each of the following sentences, write the number 1 for those that are acceptable for educated speakers, the number 2 for those that are characteristic of uneducated speakers only, and the number 3 for those that are clearly ungrammatical. Be prepared to give reasons for your choices.

1. We had seen him just yesterday.
2. We seen him the other day.
3. Could you tell me not busy?
4. It was quite evident that some one had been in the house while we were gone.
5. He ain't telling the truth.
6. Without a doubt, he was the one who done it.
7. Jimmy did a good job of shoveling the walk, like he should of.
8. He spent most of the day just laying around.
9. We shall your company enjoy to have.
10. Our neighbor said that Henry didn't look where he was riding and run down the little boy.
11. Shall we leave at eight?
12. He just come into the living room and laid down on the sofa and didn't say nothing.
13. Stanley seems very happily lately.
14. Your father speak to me like he no like me.
15. With whom would you prefer to sit?
16. Feeling he was right, Oscar refused apologizing.
17. He should of tended to it hisself.
18. If I were he, I would be very careful of my writing.
19. It is sometimes very hard understand algebra.
20. Yes, it is I. With whom would you like to speak?

LESSON THREE: FORM CLASS WORDS

In the first lessons, we looked at the problems of grammar and usage in English and found that, for our purposes, the word grammar would mean how sentences were put together in our language. We also found that such a sentence as "Henry brung his mother some flowers" was not ungrammatical but actually was a sentence which was acceptable by some native speakers of English. Although such a sentence made sense, educated people would frown upon its use. Therefore, what is commonly called "bad" grammar may simply be a type of sentence which is not accepted by educated people.

Since you were quite young, you have been able to make English sentences that were grammatical. Most of the time you didn't even know how you made these sentences. Now you should begin to study English sentences so you can have a better understanding of how they are put together. This knowledge should help you in reading and writing, but the information is also interesting in itself.

Individual words do have meanings of their own, lexical--or dictionary--meanings, but they sometimes acquire different meanings in the process of forming sentences. The word race, for instance, has the lexical meaning of "contest", such as in the sentence, "He won the race." Notice, however, how the word race may change its meaning when its relative position in a sentence or its form is changed.

> He won the race.
> The hot rods raced yesterday.
> The race was exciting.
> Racing around the track, the hot rods roared.
> The sailboats were stuck in "the race" when the tide came in.
> Race Point on the tip of Cape Cod has a beautiful beach.

For a long time students have had difficulty in identifying parts of speech in English precisely because words do change their meaning according to how they are used. You will not be asked to learn definitions of parts of speech and then be asked to pick these out of sentences. Rather, you should learn how to look at actual sentences--ones that you write, ones that you speak, and ones that professional writers have written--and know how to recognize different types of words as they are actually used in grammatical English sentences.

Generally, linguists--or those scholars who make their life work the study of language--state that there are four major form classes, or parts of speech in English. In fact, Charles C. Fries analyzed fifty hours of telephone conversations by educated speakers of English and found that 93% of the words spoken fell into these four form class groups. By form class, we mean words that can be identified chiefly by their form. The other 7% of the words--which we shall examine later--were called structure words.

The four form classes may be called nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Pronouns are different to some extent, but we may call them a subdivision of the noun class.

If it is sometimes difficult to identify individual words in English until we can see how they are actually used in sentences, then how can we distinguish different form classes? There are four ways of identifying these classes.

1. Inflection. By inflection, we mean the change of letters at the ends of words that in turn change the meaning of the words.

boy	boys
fox	foxes
give	gives
who	whom
run	running

The inflection s changes the word boy to mean more than one boy, boys. The inflection es changes fox to the plural foxes, and the inflection s changes the verb give from the present singular or plural to the third person singular, present tense, gives. The inflection m changes the nominative who to the accusative whom. (Who gave you the monkey wrench? You gave the monkey wrench to whom?) The inflection ning changes run from a word that shows action taking place to a word that shows action continuing to take place. (I run. I am running.)

2. Derivational suffixes. Suffixes are letters added to the ends of words which change their form and also meaning. These particular suffixes are called derivational because they derive from the word itself and are more closely connected to the word than the inflections we have just examined.

courage	courageous
move	movable
terror	terrible

The words courage, move, and terror are changed from nouns to adjectives by the use of derivational suffixes.

3. Word order. We can also identify form class words--nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs--by their order, or position in an English sentence.

1. The fast first baseman stole second.
2. Conscientious abjectors sometimes fast until they are almost starved.
3. The fast color did not run.
4. Do not drive fast.

With some words in English, we can tell their meaning only if we see how they are used in sentences. The first use of fast is as an adjective, telling us that the first baseman was not slow. The second fast is a verb, meaning to go without food. The third use of fast is as an adjective, but this time it is applied to a color which does not run when it is in a washing machine with other clothes. The final fast is used as an adverb and tells people how not to drive. In one respect, we can identify the form class words by their position or word order. In another way, however, an understanding of the total meaning of the sentence--or how the words are put together as a whole--is necessary before we can distinguish the different form class words.

4. Stress. Stress means the comparative loudness or softness with which we accent words.

s̍uspect	susp̍ect
i̍nsult	ins̍ult
i̍mprint	impr̍int
c̍ontrast	contr̍ast

By shifting the stress from the first to the second syllable of the preceding words, we change them from nouns to verbs. Thus, in spoken English, we would say

I susp̍ect Adam; he is a prime s̍uspect.

not

I s̍uspect Adam; he is a prime susp̍ect.

Also, we would say,

You can't ins̍ult Joe; an i̍nsult doesn't bother him.

not

You can't i̍nsult Joe; an ins̍ult doesn't bother him.

Before we analyze in more detail the form class words and the structure words of the English language, let's examine a nonsense sentence. This is a valuable exercise because it demonstrates how we can identify individual words without knowing their meaning at all. We can, you remember, identify the form class words by inflections, derivational suffixes, word order, and, sometimes, by stress.

A *stuny* *rang* *spickled* *the* *linnest* *blurbs* *tetly*.

We can't tell the lexical or dictionary meanings of the words in this sentence because there are only two words--*a* and *the*--that we recognize. Yet the grammatical meaning of the sentence is clear. The article *a* identifies *rang* as a noun, which can be made plural--*rangs*. *Blurbs* has the plural inflection of a noun. *Stuny* is an adjective because of the suffix *y* as well as its position between an article and noun. The word *linnest* is also an adjective because it is located between an article and noun, and it is further distinguished as an adjective by the superlative inflection *est* (*lin*, *linner*, *linnest*).

Spickled is a verb because it has the past tense inflection of ed, and it also has the derivational suffix of le common to such verbs as rattle, crackle, battle. Tetly should be an adverb because it ends in ly and because it appears at the end of the sentence where adverbs frequently appear.

All of this grammatical information can be learned without any attention to the meaning of the words. The sentence pattern is a basic one--Subject - Verb - Object--which can be repeated in an infinite number of sentences.

An evil man located the bank stealthily.
The colorful ringmaster entertained the crowd zestfully.
A dingy film covered the furniture lightly.

Furthermore, like any Subject - Object - Verb sentence, the nonsense sentence can be shifted to the passive.

The linnest blurbs were spickled by a stuny rang tetly.

This approach to classifying words helps us to identify words which are completely unfamiliar to us and helps us to understand the meaning of familiar words used in new and unusual ways.

LESSON THREE: FORM CLASS WORDS

Exercise A. Immediately under the sample sentences, write a new sentence using the underlined word in a different way.
Example: She sat on a tack.
He tacked the rug.

1. The cap on the bottle was stuck tight.

2. The rattlesnake can coil itself into a sinister circle.

3. The duck flew away in great fright.

4. John's father is such a grave, somber man.

5. I like to leaf through a Sears and Roebuck catalog.

6. A carpenter's plane is useful for shaving warped doors.

7. Fair weather is a blessing after a long, cold spell.

8. I have your telephone number in my file.

9. If you leaf through the book, you will find a fifty-dollar bill.

10. The pitch from the pine tree burned brightly.

Exercise B. Directly under the sample sentence, write a new sentence by changing the stress of the underlined word.
Example: The convict went to prison for ninety-nine years.

You can't convi̍ct someone without proof.

1. The i̍nsult didn't bother him.

2. To rebe̍l against authority just for the sake of rebelling is foolish.

3. The project met with complete failure.

4. Conflicting stories about the lost wallet were given.

5. A breakthrough of enemy tanks at the front was greatly feared!

Exercise C. Under the sample nonsense sentences, write new sentences that have meaning but which follow the same pattern as the nonsense sentence. Be prepared to identify in class, if possible, the form class words by the means which we have just discussed: inflection, derivational suffixes, word order, and sometimes stress.
Example: The scroopy lingle skobbed and skobbed.
The excited girl giggled and giggled.

1. The licky kares blane the bloxes a klump.

2. A sputty poo moved and kooed bloppily.

3. In the bemmest dloom, a glovely larbar spang weetly.

4. A glob is blam's fest brend.

5. Darming down the splope, the most gloggerdang berl in the glam spocked spushishly.

LESSON FOUR: FORM CLASS WORDS: NOUNS ~~AND VERBS~~

We have looked at some of the ways by which we can identify form class words: inflection, derivational suffixes, word order, and stress. Remember, these four major classes of words--nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs--make up over 93% of the words in our language. What makes up the other 7%? These words we may call structure words.

In a later lesson, we will analyze in more detail structure words, but it is necessary at this time to give a short explanation of structure words so that we can understand form class words better. Structure words cannot be classified by formal characteristics--such as distinctive form--like the form class words. For instance, we can understand the grammatical meaning of a sentence if we substitute nonsense words for form class words but retain the structure words.

That duggle on the gloop which was driggled by my obsey has been toggled.

However, if we try the reverse--substituting nonsense words for the structure words but retaining the form class words--we have no idea of the grammatical meaning of the sentence.

Driyle house glob splot hill prickle glas built ab glot grandfather blut blub sold.

That house on the hill which was built by my grandfather has been sold.

The underlined words are all structure words; the remaining words are form class words. Later, you will see a more complete list of structure words. Here, however, are a few examples of rather common structure words.

articles: a, an, the
helping verbs: can, should, may, would
prepositions: in, up, to, by, in, down
conjunctions: and, but, since, until
relatives: who, which, whose, whom

Now, let's turn back to form class words and look more closely at their distinguishing features, so you can begin to identify them and learn how they are used in English sentences.

Nouns. One of the most important ways of identifying form class words is by their order and arrangement in actual English sentences. We recognized nouns by other means, but word order shows us how form class words are actually used in sentences. A simple and clear way of showing the word order of form class words is called subsitution. We take a short and simple sentence--a minimum free utterance, it is called by the linguists--and substitute words in certain positions. If the words "fit," if they do not change the structure of the sentence, then they all belong to the same form class group. Three simple, short sentences like the following may be used:

Frame A
The pie was good.

Frame B
The teacher forgot the attendance.

Frame C
The boy went there.

By substituting words for "pie" in frame "A," we find that any words that "fit" are of a particular form class, in this case, nouns.

Frame A
The pie was good.
candy
soda
milk
ice cream
brownie

We can see readily that words ending in s do not fit the present frame. If we make a slight adjustment, then many more words can be added.

Frame A
The cookies were good.
tootsie rolls
hamburgers

The adjusted Frame A might be shown in the following manner:

Frame A
(The) __________ is/was good.
__________s are/were

We can place the word "the" in parentheses because, although it precedes many nouns in English sentences, it is not absolutely necessary.

Happiness is good.
Sugar is good.
Comments were good.

These words then, although they do not use the marker "the," are nevertheless the nouns. We also find many other nouns by determining what words "fit" the same positions in the other two simple, frame sentences.

Frame B
The teacher forgot the attendance.
mother breakfast.
guard pass.
soldier rifle.

Frame C
The boy went there.
girl
team
player
cat

We may now safely say that all words that fit the positions in these three minimum utterances are of the same form class, that is, nouns.

Although we can identify nouns by the substitution of words in sentence frames, there are other signals that help us to recognize nouns when we see them.

Nouns are frequently marked by words like "the"--which we have already learned--and which are called determiners, a group of structure words that precede the nouns they identify.

the pilot
a woman
that record
his coat
five brats

Determiners include the articles a, an, the; the demonstratives this, that, these, those; possessive forms of pronouns, my, your, his; numerals, one, five; and other words which we will identify and learn as we go along.

As we have already observed, though, not every noun is preceded by a determiner.

She enjoyed good health.
Breakfast was late.
Class was early.
Sugar is sweet.

Nouns use distinctive inflections to show the plural.

one boy - many boys
a foot - two feet
the calf - three calves
the die - two dice
one index - several indices

Nouns also show possession in the following fashion.

a nurse's coat
a student's suitcase
a winter's night

Derivational suffixes also distinguish nouns.

-ance - defiance, brilliance, substance
-ment - argument, detriment, increment
-er - writer, singer, swimmer
-al - arrival, refusal, denial

Finally, nouns can be distinguished by the appropriate stress on certain syllables.

Noun - The co̍ntest was fiercely fought.

Verb - Don't conte̍st the decision.

Noun - The re̍bel cried, "Down with everybody!"

Verb - Psychologists think that is natural for adolescents to rebel.

LESSON FOUR: FORM CLASS WORDS: NOUNS

Exercise A. For the following frame sentences, write appropriate form class words. Make sure the words "fit," and don't be afraid to make them as interesting as possible.

(The) monster is/was incredible!

____

____

____

____

____

The soldier dropped the rifle.

________ ______

________ ______

________ ______

________ ______

________ ______

The glob sloshed down the street.

______

______

______

______

______

Exercise B. Immediately under the sample sentence, write a new sentence, changing the underlined word from singular to plural by adding the appropriate inflection.

Example: My foot hurts!
My feet are black and blue.

1. The jet roared off the runway.

2. In the dark, we heard the whining dog.

3. The Lincolns have only one child.

4. Is the plural of mouse, "meese"?

5. We saw the great moose standing in the meadow.

6. The crisis was near at hand.

7. Do you know the radius of that circle?

8. A female graduate is an alumna.

9. Oh, my aching vertebra!

10. In the United States, a man may have only one wife.

Exercise C. Under the sample sentences, write a new sentence, changing the underlined word to a noun.

Example: Will the umpire reverse his decision?
The reversal was booed.

1. My mother approves of my driving a Cadillac.

2. If we could only erase all of our mistakes!

3. Did Columbus really discover America?

LESSON FOUR:
Exercise C continued

4. Jane will recover from her headache in time to go to the movies.

5. Joe likes to flatter girls.

6. The singer will perform tonight.

7. The manager will admit only children.

8. It pays to advertise.

9. The great try to achieve great things.

10. You amuse me when you say the world will end tomorrow.

11. I agree to mow your lawn for seven years.

12. If you hit him with the pie, you may be punished.

13. Henry pays for his own clothes.

14. The two cars collided with a great crash.

15. The minister advised me to stop cussing.

16. Would you help me with the garbage?

17. You can offend only your best friends.

18. I wouldn't subject a dog to that indecency.

19. "I object to that motion!" cried Oscar.

20. Please don't deride your father.

LESSON FIVE: FORM CLASS WORDS: VERBS

Just as we determined nouns by their appropriate positions in simple, sample sentences, we may do the same for identifying verbs. We use the same test frames and substitute new words, this time in a new position.

Frame A
(The) pie is/was good.
pies are/were good.
seems/seemed
seem
sounds/sounded
sound
feels/felt
feel
becomes/became
become

Actually, we see very quickly that the verbs that fit this particular frame are quite few in number. Later, we shall identify this kind of sentence and the type of verb which it employs as a special English sentence.

Frame B
(The) teacher forgot (the) attendance.
teachers
wanted
saw
discussed
suggested
understood

For this frame, we can find a great many verbs that will "fit." Later we will also identify this sentence and its kind of verb as another special type of English sentence.

Frame C
(The) boy went there.
boys
came
ran
started
moved
walked

Many different verbs will also fit the slot for Frame C, and we have here another special type of verb in a special English sentence.

Verbs may be identified by other means besides the method of substitution in sample frame sentences. For instance, the various inflections of verbs are important signals for recognition.

	3-part verb	4-part verb	5-part verb
Base	I cast	I come	I sing
S-Part	he casts	he comes	he sings
Past Tense	he cast	he came	he sang
Past Participle	he has cast	he has come	he has sung
Present Participle	he is casting	he is coming	he is singing

As we can see, some types of verbs in English have different types of inflections, but most of the verbs can be grouped under the headings of 3-part, 4-part, and 5-part verbs.

Notice that if a word can show time, or tense, then it must be a verb.

I walk to school every day.
I walked to school every day last year.
I am miserable.
I was miserable.

Also, it is important to notice that the English verb characteristically adds the inflection s to the third person singular of the present tense.

I ring the bell.
but
She rings the bell.

I talk too much.
but
Jane talks too much.

Auxilaries, or helping verbs, are certain structure words that also help to signify verbs:

The dog-faced boy was giving a show.
had been giving
might have been giving
should give
can give
must give

Just as there were derivational suffixes and prefixes that identify nouns, there are appropriate suffixes and prefixes--which we might group together as affixes--that identify verbs.

-ize - hypnotize, organize, randomize
-fy - terrify, stupify, mystify
-ate - operate, facilitate, instigate
be- - befriend, behead
en- - enrich, endear

Finally, verbs may be distinguished by stress.

I contest that ruling! - verb

The contest was absurd. - noun

"Absent thee from felicity," said Hamlet. - verb

The absent boy missed the cake and soda pop. - adjective

LESSON FIVE: FORM CLASS WORDS: VERBS

Exercise A. For the following frame sentences, write appropriate form class words. Because there is only a limited number of verbs to fit frame A, you may use some verbs already noted. For frames B and C, try to think of new verbs.

(The) cake is/was good.
cakes are/were good.

____

____

____

____

____

(The) monkey eyed the banana.

____

____

____

____

____

(The) squirrel ran there.

____

____

____

____

____

Exercise B. Under the sample sentences, write a new sentence, changing the underlined word to a verb. A prefix may be used as well as a suffix.
Example: The arrival of the governor was anticipated by everyone.
When will he arrive?

1. The acquital of the defendent was assured.

2. The departure of the train was delayed.

3. The annoyance caused by little boys is sometimes too much for adults.

4. The best offense is a good defense.

5. The catcher of a baseball team is many times the best hitter.

6. A writer must work at his job of writing day-by-day all year long.

7. That device for skinning fish is mighty handy.

8. President Lincoln bore the abuse with great sorrow.

9. The subject of Joe's talk was "The Guppy as a Pet."

10. The object of my affection is Rosemary.

11. Some historians think that the Viking colony in New Foundland was the first in the New World.

12. Elvis is still my idol.

13. He took a bath once a month whether he needed one or not.

14. Is it true that "all men are created equal"?

15. Old Mr. Cartwright is a bitter man.

16. Say "inexpensive" not "cheap."

17. The burglar left a note thanking his hosts for a delicious snack.

18. The beauty of the United States is a constant wonder.

19. Whenever someone says "no" to him, James flies into a rage.

20. "Flattery will get you anywhere," smiled Susan.

LESSON SIX: FORM CLASS WORDS: ADJECTIVES

Adjectives. As with nouns and verbs, we can most easily and clearly identify adjectives by their characteristic positions in English sentences. Again we can use the sample frame sentences to see which words "fit" the adjective slot.

The fresh pie smells good.
delicious tasty.
hot appetizing

Most words that fit these slots are adjectives. One exception is the noun sometimes used as an adjective, such as the word "blueberry." We can say

The blueberry pie smells good.
but not
The hot pie smells blueberry.

Such nouns used as adjectives may be called "nomials"; they sometimes appear in sentences where adjectives appear, but not always, and thus must be designated as nouns used as adjectives.

Other words that have traditionally been called adjectives--such as this or my--do not fit both blanks and therefore cannot be called adjectives.

This rose smells this.
or
My rose smells my.

Since words like this and my do not do the work of adjectives, we place them in the structure word category and call them determiners because they help to determine the class of the word which they precede.

If we substitute more words in the other sample sentences, we can begin to discover some interesting features about nouns.

The unhappy teacher forgot the troublesome attendance.
The best teacher forgot the weekly attendance.
The prettiest teacher forgot the class attendance.
The more boisterous boys went there.
The most slovenly boy went there.

Can you begin to see what makes certain words, adjectives? The two usual positions for adjectives are between a determiner and a noun and after a special verb such as look, smell, seem, appear, and grow. Frequently a special type of word which qualifies or intensifies the adjective precedes it like very, quite, or rather. Such structure words we may call intensifiers.

Determiner	Adjective	Noun
D	Adj.	N.
this	loony	boy
the	attractive	iguana
a	beastly	singer

Determiner	Adjective	Noun	Verb	Intensifier	Adjective
D.	Adj.	N.	V.	I.	Adj.
this	loony	boy	seemed	quite	ususual
the	attractive	iguana	appeared	rather	friendly
a	beastly	teacher	grew	very	distraught

Adjectives are also identified by the inflections er and est which are added to the base word to show amount or quality of degree. We can simply call the degrees of comparison, positive, comparative and superlative.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
fast	faster	fastest
slow	slower	slowest
ugly	uglier	ugliest

Of course, adjectives which have more than two syllables usually do not use inflections to show the comparative and superlative degrees but place more or most before the adjective.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
devious	more devious	most devious
insidious	more insidious	most insidious

Another way of identifying adjectives is by learning the many types of derivational suffixes which are characteristic of this form class. Many times there are regular patterns of contrast between adjectives and other form class words such as nouns or verbs.

Adjective	from	Noun
baggy		bag
cloudy		cloud
beastly		beast
friendly		friend
bookish		book
childish		child
accidental		accident
brutal		brute
famous		fame
porous		pore
angelic		angel
cubic		cube
peaceful		peace
healthful		health

Adjective	from	Verb
confident		confide
excellent		excell
creative		create
selective		select
meddlesome		meddle
molten		melt

Finally, there are a few adjectives which are identical to other form class words except for their pronunciation. The word separate may be either an adjective or verb, depending how we pronounce it and where we use it in the sentence.

A separate room is preferable.
Separate those dogs!

There are many other examples, of course, of adjectives which have been formed from other parts of speech. Your task is to recognize the various form classes instantly--without long and conscious examination--and then learn how to use them in English sentences.

LESSON SIX: FORM CLASS WORDS: ADJECTIVES

Exercise A. For each blank in the following sentences, write three different adjectives. Don't be afraid to try new and unusual words.

Example: The ________ fish smelled ______________.
spoiled — unusual.
fried — delectable.
fresh — tasty.

1. The ______________ boy appeared ______________.
______________ ______________.
______________ ______________.

2. The ______________ sauerkraut smelled ______________.
______________ ______________.
______________ ______________.

3. The ______________ singer looked ______________.
______________ ______________.
______________ ______________.

4. The ______________ meat tasted very ______________.
______________ ______________.
______________ ______________.

5. The ______________ glob felt extremely ______________.
______________ ______________.
______________ ______________.

Exercise B. By changing the derivational suffixes of the following words, change them to adjectives.

Example: dirt dirty

1. wrath ________________
2. father ________________
3. lady ________________
4. gold ________________
5. read ________________
6. shrink ________________
7. swell ________________
8. possess ________________
9. compassion ________________
10. wool ________________

Exercise B continued

11. pay______________
12. meddle______________
13. loathe______________
14. irk ______________
15. conciliate ________
16. faith______________
17. law______________
18. home______________
19. beauty______________
20. power______________

Exercise C. Under the sample sentences, write a new sentence, changing the underlined word to an adjective.
Example: The dirt was all over the furniture.
The dirty furniture was a sight.

1. We had the most fun at your party.

2. Some day my prince will come.

3. There's no fool like a young fool.

4. Put me down, you brute!

5. The pomp of the graduation ceremony was impressive.

6. Mike has more nerve than a brass monkey.

7. The power of a woman's tongue is overwhelming.

8. "It is a good thing that war is so terrible, or we would come to love it," said R. E. Lee.

9. The spider's web glistened like silk in the early morning sun.

10. He who steals my bubble gum is a loathesome wretch!

LESSON SEVEN

FORM CLASS WORDS: ADVERBS

The first step in identifying adverbs is by using the same sample frame sentences which helped us to identify the other form class words. Any words which fit the following slots are adverbs.

Frame A

(The) fresh pie is/was good there.
pies are/were here.
always.
then
sometimes.

Frame B

(The) teacher forgot (the) attendance clearly.
s
sufficiently.
especially.
repeatedly.
soon.

Frame C

(The) boy went there.
s
back.
out.
upstairs.
rapidly.

There are many characteristics of adverbs in English sentences that we can observe from noticing how they act in the representative slots. Some adverbs obviously belong together and can simply be added after the verb.

The boys went down rapidly after.

Some adverbs may not be listed in this fashion. We would not say the following:

The boys went down away.
The boys went early often.

Sometimes, the comma may properly separate the adverbs.

The boys went rapidly eagerly.
The boys went rapidly, eagerly.

We can also learn very quickly by observing what words belong in the adverb slots that adverbs are frequently marked by the derivational suffix ly. Many times the ly is simply added to the adjective form.

Adjective	Adverb
thoughtful	thoughtfully
easy	easily
happy	happily
pretty	prettily
quick	quickly

There are, however, many other words besides those that end in ly that can appear in the adverb slot. In this case, we cannot rely on the derivational suffix, but we must test the word in its correct position.

Adj. Adj.
The first man will be the last.

Adv.
James ran last.

Adv.
His sister came in first.

Adj.
The long dog looked like a frankfurter.

Adj.
The hard roll crunched and crackled.

Adv. Adv.
She sighed long and hard.

A few adverbs are identical to prepositions in form, but we can tell the difference between the two by noting the stress on the respective words. Note which word receives the major emphasis.

Come ˈon. (Adv.)

(preposition)
This is the train I ˈcame on.

Walk ˈin. (Adv.)

(preposition)
This is the field I ˈwalk in.

As far as position is concerned, adverbs can move around in the sentence the most easily of all form class words. Frequently, they appear at the end of a short sentence, but they may come before a verb, between an auxiliary and a verb, or at the beginning of a sentence.

She walked away.
She walked rapidly.
She walked often.
She often walked the dog rapidly.
She has often walked the dog rapidly.
Often she has walked the dog rapidly.

One important point should be made from this simple exercise with the movement of the adverb in a sentence. English is such a flexible language that we may move around words, phrases, and even sentences in paragraphs until the patterns say what we want them to say. Actually this is what writing is all about: moving words and phrases until they "sound" right. The more you practice doing this with language elements, the better you'll become at it, and the better writer you'll become.

Adverbs may also be identified by words such as rather, quite, and very. These words--which we may call intensifiers because they intensify the adverb--often precede adverbs.

Intensifier	Adverb
rather	hesitantly
quite	slowly
very	quickly

Most adverbs can show degrees of comparison like adjectives--positive, comparative, and superlative--and the typical way is to add the words more and most to the positive degree.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
quickly	more quickly	most quickly
rambunctiously	more rambunctiously	most rambunctiously
happily	more happily	most happily

This is not always the case, however, because some adverbs may be compared by simply adding er and est like adjectives. Some forms may look like either an adjective or adverb.

fast	faster	fastest
soon	sooner	soonest
early	earlier	earliest
happily	more happily	most happily
happy	happier	happiest

A final way of identifying adverbs is by learning their characteristic derivational prefixes and suffixes. Just as with other form class words, there are regular patterns of contrast between adverbs and other words.

Adverb	from	Adjective
noisily		noisy
wearily		weary
gladly		glad
hopefully		hopeful
rhythmicly		rhythmic

Adverb	from	Noun
away		way
aboard		board
aground		ground
yearly		year
seaward		sea

Again, it is important to remember that there are many other examples of adverbs. Your constant and continuing job is to recognize the form class words and to practice using them correctly in your speech and writing.

LESSON SEVEN

FORM CLASS WORDS: ADVERBS

Exercise A. For each blank in the following sentences, write three different adverbs. Try to use as interesting words as you can, but make sure that they fit the slots.

Example: She cried ________.
incessantly.
hesitantly.
resoundingly.

1. She talked ________________.
________________.
________________.

2. The dog ________________ sniffed.
____
____

3. The cat has ________________ yowled ________________.
________________ ________________.
________________ ________________.

4. ________________ does Joe complain.
____
____

5. My brother has ________________ cried ________________.
________________ ________________.
________________ ________________.

6. George ________________ went ________________.
________________ ________________.
________________ ________________.

Exercise B. By changing the derivational prefixes or suffixes of the following words, change them to adverbs.

1. happy ____________
2. separate ____________
3. day ____________
4. month ____________
5. polite ____________
6. lee ____________
7. final ____________
8. round ____________
9. hour ____________
10. candid ____________
11. open ____________
12. smiling ____________
13. cross ____________
14. head ____________
15. night ____________
16. bright ____________
17. week ____________
18. home ____________
19. idle ____________
20. sad ____________

Exercise C. Under the sample sentence, write a new sentence, changing the underlined word to an adverb.
Example: The final day of class arrived.
We left school finally.

1. The Lord loves cheerful givers.

2. "That's a private joke," he laughed.

3. The normal way to prepare for an exam is to study all night and then cross your fingers.

4. What social class do you belong to?

5. Oh! was he a tiresome speaker!

6. The aim of education is not to prepare confident fools.

7. Jim is a frequent visitor to my house around supper time.

8. "Retract that slanderous statement, or I must demand immediate satisfaction," demanded One-Eyed Pete.

9. Our annual picnic was a flop; we drank only seventeen cases of orange soda.

10. My right foot was so sore after the ten-mile hike.

LESSON EIGHT: STRUCTURE WORDS

Now that we have found out the distinguishing features of form class words--in what positions they occur in sentences and how they may change their forms--we must turn to a more detailed examination of structure words. Our study will be by no means a full summary of this special category of words, but you should be introduced to structure words, learn how to identify them, and learn how to use them correctly in English sentences. Although there are fewer structure words than form class words in English, structure words must be learned as separate items, simply memorized, if you will. Structure words have no special identifying features, for instance, like those of form class words. We have come to expect that most words in English ending in ous are adjectives (famous, joyous, spacious), but what connection can we see between the two structure words, and and but?

1. Determiners (words which signal nouns).
Still using the sample sentence frame, we may ask what words fit the slot in which the word the appears.

(The) fresh pie is/ was good there.
s are/were

a/an
your
John's
one
twenty

my
many
this, these
that, those
all

If we examine the words which can appear in this position, we find out that words such as the, a, an, my, your, our, and their always function in this particular slot while the other words may serve in this position, depending upon how they are used in the sentence. All such words we may call determiners, because they serve to mark off the noun form class.

2. Auxiliaries (words which signal verbs).
To find out what words represent the second kind of structure word, we may look for the words which will take the place of the word can in the following frame.

Base Form
(The) teacher can forget the attendance.
could
may
shall
will
does

We very quickly find many other words that will fit this particular slot if we change the form of the verb which precedes it. Do you remember the different parts of a typical English verb that we discussed earlier?

Base	forget (or) to forget
S. Part.	forgets
Past Tense	forgot
Past Participle	forgotten
Present Participle	forgetting

Besides words like can appearing with the base form, we note that the following words may appear with the different verb forms.

Present Participle
(The) teacher is forgetting the attendance.
s are
was

Past Participle
(The) teacher has forgotten the attendance.
s have
had

Infinitive (to + base form)
(The) teacher ought to forget the attendance.
has
had
used

All such structure words--because they help verbs--may be called helpers or auxiliaries.

3. Intensifiers (words which appear with adjectives and adverbs). By noting all of the words that can occur in the position of very in the following sentence frame, we can identify another type of structure word.

(The) pie was very good.
quite
really
fairly
rather

The intensifier can appear before an adverb as well as before an adjective.

(The) boy went very rapidly.
quite
rather
awfully
mighty
too

4. Coordinators (words which join equivalent grammatical units). This group of structure words helps to connect words, phrases and clauses in English sentences, but they may connect only those words on patterns which belong to the same class.

(The) pie and ice cream was good. (connects nouns)

(The) fresh but tasteless pie was good. (connects adjectives)

(The) teacher forgot the attendance but apologized. (connects verbs)

(The) girl ran hastily and clumsily. (connects adverbs)

(The) girl ran down the street and around the corner. (connects phrases)

(The) pie was good, but the cake was better. (connects patterns)

5. Interrogators (words which can be used at the beginning of a sentence to signal questions). Such words, when they appear at the beginning of an English sentence, signal a question that requires a response. Some of them (who, which, what) may have other functions, but these functions are dependent upon how they are used in sentences. Words that may appear in the position of when are called interrogators.

When was the pie good?
Why
Where
How

When did the boy call?
Why
Where
How
Who
Which
What

6. Prepositions (words which are usually followed by a noun or other nominal). Words that take the place of the word at are prepositions.

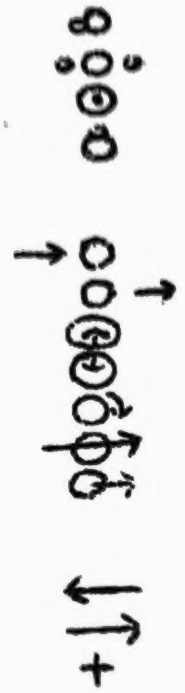
(The) pie at the school was good.
in
of
under
over

Although not all prepositions would fit this particular slot, there are many others that you must learn separately and--what is more important--learn how to use them correctly in English sentences. There are quite a few words that fall into this group of structure words, but you will probably be concerned for the most part with only nine one-syllable prepositions that are the most important ones in our language.

at
by
for
from
in
on
of
to
with

The actual relationships that prepositions show are quite few:

Symbol



a. The relation of location:

at the house
by the house
in the house
on the house

b. The relation of direction:

to the house
from the house
up the house
down the house
off the house
through the house
out the house

c. The relation of association

of the family of David
for the cause of liberty
with the revolutionists

The preceding symbols may be used to show the relationship of the preposition to the noun or nomial.

7. Subordinators (words which introduce dependent clauses). The final general group of structure words that we shall identify can be learned by listing all the words that may take the place of after in the following sentence.

(The) pie was good after the new cook came.
when
because
although
since
before

The most important feature of this group of structure words is that they always stand before a group of words with a noun and verb which function as a subject and predicate. We also learn quite quickly that subordinators can occur in three major positions:

a. Before the main clause:
When the new cook came, the pie was good.
After
Before
Because

b. After the main clause:
The pie was good after the new cook came.
before
since

c. Within the main clause:
The cook who was well prepared did a good job.
that

There are some other structure words which do not fall into the preceding categories. You should at least know what they are and be prepared to use them in your sentences.

a. The word not has no meaning except to show negation.
The pie was not good.

b. The words do or did which appear at the beginning of a sentence simply make it a question which requires a response.
Do the boys go there?
Did

c. The word there at the beginning of a sentence serves as a directive; it points out some thing.
There is a man.

It is different from the adverb there because it is always unstressed.
I see a man 'there.
There is a man.

d. Words like well, oh, now, and why at the beginning of a sentence serve to continue the communication. They have no other grammatical meaning.
Well, isn't that nice?
Oh, I'll come along.
Now, I wish you wouldn't do it.
Why, we'll all help you.

e. Finally the words *yes* and *no* at the beginning of sentences simply have a meaning of affirmation or negation.
Yes, I'm coming.
No, I won't be there.

After we have studied this list of the major types of structure words, we may make some interesting conclusions about them.

1. There are relatively few structure words in English as compared to form class words, but the structure words are used over and over again in English sentences out of all proportion to their numbers.

2. Form class words may appear in very simple sentences--minimum free utterances--but structure words appear most frequently in expanded sentences.

	Adj.	N.	V.	Adv.
(The)	pretty	birds	sing	loudly.

Yes, *the* pretty birds, *which* woke me *up* *this* morning *at* eight o'clock, sing *rather* loudly, *but* I *may* come to love them.

It seems evident that structure words are essential to the process of expanding English sentences and to holding together the different parts.

3. Form class words usually have dictionary or lexical meanings as well as grammatical meaning; structure words have only grammatical meaning. We know the "meaning" of form class words like *baby*, *hot dog*, *laugh*, *hastily*, or *ugly*, but what are the meanings of words like *the*, *shall*, *may*, *and*, *but*?

4. Finally, we must learn all of the structure words as items; we must memorize them. If we substitute a nonsense word for a structure word, it is impossible to determine the meaning.

The girl *mab* given a wig.

What do we mean?
The girl had given a wig. (or)
The girl was given a wig.

The separate structure words are few in number, but they do an indespensible job in the English language. They show relationships between and among form class words. They help to "cement" these words together, if you like. Although structure words are few, they have no special forms or positions by which we can identify them. They must be memorized as single items.

LESSON EIGHT: STRUCTURE WORDS

Exercise A. In the following frame sentences, list five different structure words which are indicated. In some cases you may have to change the sentence slightly.

Example: Determiner
The cat were fighting.
cats
Several
Many
This
Our

1. Determiners

The cowboys roared into town.

____

____

____

____

____

2. Auxiliaries

The cowboys could roar into town.

____

____

____

____

____

3. Intensifiers

The very boisterous cowboys roared into town.

____

____

____

____

____

4. Interrogators

Who roared into town?

____

____

____

____

____

5. Prepositions

The cowboys roared into town.

____

____

____

____

____

6. Subordinators

Although the cowboys roared into town, we were (not) afraid.

____

____

____

____

____

LESSON NINE: THE SENTENCE: SUBJECT

Now that you have learned how to identify the form class and structure words that go to make up the sentences in our language, we should examine the basic patterns of English sentences. We must remember that form class and structure words--although they may have individual meanings--are used chiefly in our language to show relationships among two or more persons, things, qualities, or ideas--which in turn stand for real-life situations.

1 Subject	2 Predicate
I	like Henrietta. (persons)
Joe	dropped his books. (person and thing)
My mother	prefers honesty (person and quality)
Free men	will select a democracy rather than a totalitarian state. (persons and ideas)

The simplest and clearest way to begin to understand these relationships is by identifying the basic sentence patterns of English sentences. First of all, these basic patterns are in the form of statements, not commands; and they are all active, not passive.

Basic Sentence Pattern

1. Henrietta rowed mightily.

Command

2. Henrietta, row mightily!

Passive

3. The boat was rowed mightily by Henrietta.

Actually, you can see quite easily that sentences 2 and 3 have a great deal in common with sentence 1. For reasons that we will discuss later, however, we will say that sentence 1 is a basic sentence; that is, it cannot be broken down or changed to a simpler sentence. The other two sentences are derived directly from sentence 1, however, and have a close relation to it.

For purposes of grammatical analysis and understanding, we may state that all basic sentences consist of two parts, the *subject* and *predicate*. Furthermore, we may say that the normal position for *most* English sentences is that of the subject, first, and the predicate, second.

1 Subject	2 Predicate
Birds	sing.
Snakes	wiggle.
The girls	were wiggling.
A boy	snickered.
He	came
He	came in a hurry.
His father	washed the dishes.
His mother	ate bonbons.
She	loved feeding the snakes.
My brother	preferred to yell in my ear.

The sentence "Birds sing" demonstrates a basic pattern even though such a sentence would probably never be spoken or written. The simplest kind of subject is a noun--sometimes preceded by a determiner such as *the*, *a*, *his*, *my*. Another very basic subject may be a pronoun.

As you have already learned, nouns are form class words that can appear in the position of the word *pie* in the following sentence: "(The) *pie* is good." All words that fit this position are nouns and include such words as *birds*, *snakes*, *girls*, *boys*, *father*, *mother*, and *brother*. Other words that may be used as nouns are *apple*, *house*, *table*, *fireplace*, *dish*, *beauty*, *truth*, *justice*, *misery*, *Mary*, *Jennifer*, *Smith*, *Jones*, and *Murphy*. Such words then, most often form the basis of a subject in English.

If we observe closely how different nouns are used to show relationships among persons and objects, qualities, and ideas, we can see quite quickly that there are different kinds of nouns in this general form class category.

For example, we can say:

Were there many apples there?
pears
people

But we cannot say:

Were there many sand there?
grass
flour

Also, we can say:

There was much sand here.
flour
grass

But we cannot say:

There was much apples here.
deer
Peter

One way of dividing nouns could be by the following:

Countable:	Were there many apples there?
Non-countable:	There was much sand here.
Animate (living):	It excited the deer.
Proper (particular name):	This is Beulah.

You should remember, though, that words that look like nouns may also appear as different form class words, depending upon how they are used in the sentence. The word shield, for instance, may be a noun or a verb.

The shield protected the Greek warrior from many dangers.

Shield your face from the sun.

Many nouns, of course, cannot be used in place of some form class words. For instance, the word *truth* cannot be used as a verb. We cannot say

He *truthed* it.
or
He will *truth* it.

We can, however, use the noun *truth* as an adjective, such as in this sentence:

The *truth* serum was used as a last resort.

Many nouns, of course, are preceded by determiners such as *the*, *a*, *his*, and *my*. Traditionally such words have been called adjectives, but they really don't behave like adjectives.

In the sentence "The boy looked *honest*" we know that the word *honest* is an adjective and that all words that can take the place of the word *honest* are adjectives. If the word *the* is an adjective, then it should be able to take the place of the word *honest*, but it is quite evident that we cannot say

The boy looked *the*.

We can't substitute other words such as *a*, *the*, or *his* for the form class word "honest" in the sentence, "The boy is *honest*." They don't do the work of adjectives, so we must place them in a separate category and designate them as *determiners*. Here is a list of commonly used determiners that may appear with nouns in the subject position:

the
a
an
his
her
this
these

those
some
many
few
several
all
most

more
our
your
every
each
any
neither

Words like *he*, *she*, *it*, or *they* may also appear in the subject position in basic sentences. Such words are called pronouns.

(The) *pie* was good.
It

(The) *teacher* forgot the attendance.
she

(The) *boys* went there.
They

Here is a list of commonly used pronouns placed in three general categories.

Personal Pronouns: I, me, mine, you, yours, he, his, she, her, hers, its, we, our, ours, they, their, theirs.

Demonstrative Pronouns: this, that, these, those.

Indefinite Pronouns: each, every, someone, anyone, several, few, one, none.

For the most part, you have already learned how to use pronouns correctly in your speech, but as you continue to analyze your language you will come to understand better how pronouns function. For instance, you know that such pronouns as *him*, *her*, *me*, *us*, and *them* never appear as the subject of a sentence. Educated speakers, at least, do not say:

Him is my brother.
Her will come to my party.
Me am the one who broke the window.
Them are the boys who went swimming.

Also, some determiners may appear as pronouns, depending how they are used in the sentence.

Determiner: *This* baby buggy is mine.
Pronoun: *This* is mine.

Determiner: *Each* octopus gave me a friendly squeeze.
Pronoun: *Each* gave me a friendly squeeze.

Determiner: *Those* fire crackers are my father's.
Pronoun: *Those* are my father's.

The important thing to remember is that language is used to convey relationships in actual life among persons and other persons, ideas, or qualities. We may--for the sake of simplicity--divide the expression of this relationship in English into the broad categories of *subject*, and *predicate*.

1 *Subject*	2 *Predicate*
Girls	giggle.
Several girls	giggle.
They	giggle.

As we have observed, *nouns*, *determiners*, and *pronouns* very commonly appear in the subject position. Furthermore--and this is a very important fact about the English language--the normal order for most English sentences is that of the subject, first, and the predicate, second.

LESSON NINE: THE SENTENCE: SUBJECT

Exercise A. We know that nouns like apples, sand, kitten and flowers are different. You are given four sentences with blanks where different kinds of nouns can appear. Two examples are given. You are to find eight more that will fill the blanks.

1. (Countable noun)
Were there many apples there?
gloves

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

2. (Non-countable noun)
There was much sand here.
happiness

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

3. (Animate noun)
It excited the kitten.
beetle.

____

____

(continued on next page)

3. ______________

____

____

____

____

____

4. (Proper noun)
This is Penelope.
Thomas.

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

Exercise B. The following sentences are examples of other than basic sentence situations. Below the sentences re-write them so that they are in the normal subject, predicate order.

Example: The cat was chased by the dog.
The dog chased the cat.

John, come here!
John comes here.

1. Are the dogs barking?

(continued next page)

Exercise B. (cont.)

2. Was the hippopatomus grumbling?

3. Did somebody pop his gum?

4. Lester's beard was trimmed.

5. The right answer was given by each contestant.

6. Boys, stop snickering and chuckling.

7. Leslie's lustrous hair was stroked.

8. Please go to your seats without grumbling, girls.

9. Have the sailboats left already?

10. Much water was found in the basement by the plumber.

Exercise C. The following are examples of basic sentences. Above the subject of each sentence, write the capital letter "N" for noun, "P" for prohoun, and "D-N" for determiner and noun.

Examples:

N
John laughed uproariously.

P
She loves candy.

D-N
The cat scratched with vigor.

1. The baby poked me.

2. Joe gulped quickly.

3. Everybody cheered furiously.

LESSON TEN: THE SENTENCE PREDICATE

The sentences that we have been working with represent basic patterns. The subject may be only a noun, a pronoun, or a determiner and a noun. The predicate also can be quite simple, or it can become as complicated as we wish to make it.

1. I like you
2. I might like you.
3. I might have liked you.
4. I might have been about to like you.

The first sentences makes a direct statement which describes a situation that takes place at the present. The idea which is stated, "I like you" is different from the idea that describes an event taking place in the future, "I shall like you," or an event that took place in the past, "I liked you." In sentence 2, the verb helper or auxiliary is added that qualifies the simple statement of "I like you" to a statement that "I might like you," if something or other happens. Sentence 3 conveys the idea that "I might have liked you" at one time, but I don't now; and sentence 4 that "I might have been about to like you" at one point, but something stopped me.

The verb, which is the core of the predicate, is an important factor in the varied sentence patterns of English and is primarily responsible for determining the particular sentence pattern. The verb can be quite plain and simple, or it can become complex by adding auxiliaries which qualify the meaning of the verb. Furthermore, both the subject and predicate can add single words such as adjectives and adverbs, phrases, and clauses to represent mature and complex ideas.

This process of starting out with simple, basic sentence patterns and then adding words, phrases, and clauses until the sentences become long and intricate is much like the process which a baby goes through in learning how to talk. For instance, the baby first might learn to identify an object and say:

Mamma.

Later, he may add a verb which expresses a relationship.

Love mamma.

He may then include the subject and probably, at first, use the wrong form of the pronoun.

Me love mamma.

As he grows more adept at handling his language and as he listens more to grown-ups speak, he undoubtedly will choose the correct form of the pronoun and use the word "mother" rather than "mamma."

I love mother.

As the individual grows older, then, his thoughts become more complex, and he finds that he must employ more complicated sentences to express his more mature thoughts.

> *A thoughtful boy, who has always felt that his mother has loved him and taken care of him, preparing him for what even life can bring, will almost certainly feel a deep love for his mother, even though, at times, he has wished to be independent from her supervision*.

This sentence is certainly a lot longer than the preceding ones, and the idea that it expresses is much more complex than that conveyed by the others, but the basic patterns may be seen as simply this:

Boy will feel love for his mother,
or
Boy feels love.

As you grow older, you should learn how to use words, phrases, and clauses to make your written and spoken language reflect your more mature thoughts.

All predicates in the basic sentence patterns contain a verb or some form of the word *be*. Although we have traditionally called *be* a verb, in many ways the word does not act like verbs. For our purposes, then, we will place it in a separate category.

As you have already learned, verbs are words that can appear in the following positions in the sample frame sentences.

(The) teacher forgot the attendance.
s remembered
saw

(The) boy went there.
s ran
laughed.

Words that can fit the position of was in the frame sentence, "(The) pie was good" are different forms of the word be, or are verbs of a special type which we shall discuss later.

(The) pie was good.
s is
are
looked
smelled
became

Verbs, then, are words like see, go, walk, feel, become, taste, lighten, fight, develop, invade, surpervise, instigate, abrogate, and solidify. Remember that verbs may act like other form class words. For instance, you can taste the food, and the taste of food can be good. You can fight the good battle, but the fight can go against.you.

The verb system of English, in one way, is quite simple. Most of the time, we use the simple forms: present, future and past.

I laugh.
I shall laugh.
I laughed.

These simple forms are used in most of our everyday speech and in a great deal of our writing. However, as you have already seen, we can make the verb quite complex by adding auxiliaries, which qualify the meaning.

I might have begun to have learned to laugh.

Such a verb, with all of its verb helpers or auxiliaries, is really a cumbersome, monstrous thing. Chiefly, we should try to use simple, straight forward verbs and save such complex verb forms for situations when we really need them.

To describe the English verb system quite simply, we may say that there are five different parts and three major kinds of verbs, plus the word be.

	3-part verb	4-part verb
Base	I cast	I come
S-Part	he cast-s	he come-s
Past Tense	she cast-s	she came
Past Participle	they have cast	they have come
Present Participle	cast-ing	com-ing

	5-part verb	word be
Base	I sing	to + be (I am)
S-Part	He sing-s	he is/we are
Past Tense	she sang	she was/they were
Past Participle	they have sung	he has be-en
Present Participle	sing-ing	be-ing

As children we originally learned to speak and to use verb forms in English by listening to grown-ups and other children say English sentences. Then we copied these sentences, said them again and again, were corrected by older people, and learned how to compose new sentences from the basic patterns.

We actually learned the various verb forms in English by listening to adults and repeating what we heard. For the most part, we know quite well how to use our verbs correctly, but now we can see how English verbs take their distinctive forms by arranging them like this:

Base	S-Part	Past	Past Participle	Present Participle
walk	walks	walked	walked	walking
talk	talks	talked	talked	talking
jump	jumps	jumped	jumped	jumping
drive	driver	drove	driven	driving
sing	sings	sang	sung	singing
ring	rings	rang	rung	ringing

The first three verbs are called regular verbs because the Past and Past Participle forms are the same. The last three verbs are irregular verbs because their Past and Past Participle forms are not formed in any regular way and simply must be learned.

Pattern One. The first and probably the simplest basic sentence pattern that we shall examine consists of just a subject and predicate in the following order:

1 Subject	2 Predicate
Birds	sing.
The bird	sings.
Many birds	sing.
Dog	growls.
The dogs	growl.
Boy	laughs.
This boy	laughs.

Because the verb in the predicate of this particular pattern does not take an object--does not show a relationship among one or more persons, ideas, or qualities--we call this type of verb intransitive.

Notice that the Base form of the verb occurs when the subject is plural. When the subject is singular, the -s must be added to the verb form. When the action takes place in the past, the form of the verb is always the same.

Birds sang.
The bird sang.

Dogs growled.
The dog growled.

Boys laughed.
The boy laughed.

To this basic sentence pattern, adverbs may or may not be added; if they are, they usually appear after the verb.

The birds sang + sweetly.
The dogs growled + ferociously.
The boy laughed + uproariously.

Another type of adverb may be added to this basic sentence pattern.

John went + away.
The cat looked + up.
The tank passed + by.

Adverbs like "away," "up," and "by" are quite different from adverbs like "sweetly," "ferociously," and "uproariously." Adverbs like "by" may also be prepositions, depending how they are used in the sentence.

1. John stopped.
   (adverb)
2. John stopped by.
   (preposition)
3. John stopped by the jewelry store.

We can also note the difference in the two uses of "by" in sentences 2 and 3 by noting the stress given the words. The adverb "by" is stressed while the preposition "by" is not.

For the next few lessons, we will be examining several basic sentence patterns in the English language. These patterns form the heart of English sentences. From them an infinite variety of new sentences can be formed. The important points to be remembered about PATTERN ONE is that basically it consists of a noun and verb, to which an adverb may be added. The verb, because it does not take an object, is called intransitive.

PATTERN ONE: The trout leaped + gracefully.

LESSON TEN: THE SENTENCE: PREDICATE

Exercise A. After the following sentences, write the simple verb form which is in the predicate. Disregard the auxiliaries or verb helpers. You may have to change the form of the verb. Example: Jim should like his new bicycle. like

1. The canary should have liked its new cage. ____________

2. I have had rung that old bell many times. ____________

3. Ethel should have been going to every meeting. ____________

4. The snow might have been falling for days. ____________

5. Mis Grundy ought not to have been giving us such hard tests.

____

Exercise B. Write the appropriate forms of the verbs which are listed. If you do not know the correct form, you may have to consult a dictionary.

(see page 2)

	Base I sing I walk	S. Part. he sings he walks	Past he sang he walked	Past Participle he has sung he walked	Present Participle singing walking
1. throw					
2. speak					
3. jump					
4. swim					
5. converse					
6. seem					
7. dive					
8. write					
9. dance					
10. drive					
11. hit					
12. bite					
13. eat					
14. sail					
15. drink					
16. teach					
17. learn					
18. lay					

	Base	S. Part	Past	Past Participle	Present Participle
19. sit					
20. bear					
21. freeze					
22. rise					
23. see					
24. drown					
25. lie					

Lesson Ten Predicate

Exercise C. Write ten examples of the PATTERN ONE sentence. Remember to follow the form which has been established: noun and verb, with or without at adverb.
Example: Crocodiles snicker.
All crocodiles smirk happily.
Don't be afraid to write interesting sentences.

1. ______________________________

2. ______________________________

3. ______________________________

4. ______________________________

5. ______________________________

6. ______________________________

7. ______________________________

8. ______________________________

9. ______________________________

10. ______________________________

LESSON ELEVEN: SENTENCE PATTERNS ONE AND TWO

The first sentence pattern that we examined was one like the following:

The dogs growl.

We can say that this is a basic pattern because it cannot be expressed in any simpler form, except by omitting the determiner the. We may also add an adverb after the verb to tell us how the dogs growled.

The dogs growled ferociously.

For the purpose of understanding the basic pattern of this sentence without any attention to the meanings of the individual words, we can use letters as symbols to stand for this general pattern from which an infinite number of new sentences can be created.

(D) N V (Adv.)

The D stands for determiner, and the parentheses enclosing the determiner mean that the determiner may or may not occur in the sentence as a part of the basic pattern. N and V stand for the noun and verb. These form class words, of course, are essential to this pattern and must be included. As we have just observed, the adverb, like the determiner, may or may not occur in this particular pattern, and, therefore, it is also enclosed by parentheses. Here are more examples of PATTERN ONE sentences.

(D)	N	V	(Adv.)
	Kittens	play.	
Several	kittens	play	happily.
All of the	boys	sing	lustily.
Some	boys	do not sing	on key.
My dear	mother	may be about to scold	unmercifully.

All of the sample sentences may be different, but the basic pattern for each one is the same. Can you find the basic patterns?

The second basic sentence pattern which we shall examine may be represented by the following letters arranged in this formula.

(D) N V Adj.

You will notice that although the determiner may or may not appear, the adjective must come after the verb in this particular pattern. Here are some examples of PATTERN TWO sentences:

(D)	N	V	Adj.
	Josephine	looked	sad.
The	roast	seemed	singed.
The	tadpole	became	happy.
The	music	sounds	loud.
The	pickle	tastes	sour.
The	rose	smells	sweet.
	I	feel	bad.
The	class	grew	restless.

All of the verbs in PATTERN TWO are called linking verbs. They belong to a particular class of English verbs that is a fairly small one. You should learn to recognize the verbs in this class and notice that they operate in a different way from other verbs. In order to memorize them more easily, you might simply remember the verbs become, seem, appear, and grow, and verbs that pertain to the senses--feel, sound, taste, and smell. These few verbs are used most frequently as linking verbs; there are other verbs, however, which are used less frequently but which are not at all unusual.

(D)	N	V	Adj.
The	door	bangs	shut.
	Susan	blushed	red.
Many	sailboats	broke	loose.
	It	got	late.
My	aunt	keeps	thin.
His	followers	remained	loyal.
	I	can rest	easy.
That	answer	rings	true.

Although such sentences may seem a little unusual, they are perfectly appropriate English sentences. The test we must apply to determine whether the sentences represent PATTERN TWO is to ask if the adjective _must_ follow the verb. If it must, then the sentence represents PATTERN TWO.

It is important to remember that the adjective, not the adverb, must follow such linking verbs. If we wrote that "The pickle tastes sourly," the meaning would be that the pickle had a tongue and that the tongue tasted in a sour manner. The adjective _sour_ after the linking verb _tastes_ modifies the noun _pickle_. We should be able to move _sour_ to the adjective position before the noun pickle. We can say

The _sour_ pickle tastes _sour_.
but not
The _sourly_ pickle tastes _sourly_.

We also say in English that "The rose smells sweet," not, "The rose smells sweetly." With the latter sentence, the meaning would be that the rose had a nose and that the nose smelled in a sweet manner. The sentence, "I feel bad," is an unusual one, even for a PATTERN TWO sentence. If we wish to use the forms of English used by educated speakers of the language, we should say, "I feel bad," when we mean to imply that we are sick or unhappy. If we say, "I feel badly," then we mean that our fingers hurt and that they are "feeling badly." One example of an individual who "feels badly" would be a safe cracker who has hurt his fingers and therefore who can't "feel" the tumblers clicking in a safe. He would literally "feel badly."

In previous lessons, we have been studying how words in the English language convey grammatical meaning--by inflection, derivational affixes, word order, and stress. Sometimes, however, these signals fail us, and we are confused by a particular sentence.

She looked fast.

Such a sentence could be either PATTERN ONE or PATTERN TWO. If it is a PATTERN ONE sentence, then the meaning would be that she looked quickly for something. If it is a PATTERN TWO sentence, then the meaning might be that she looked like a "fast runner." The meaning also might not be a literal one but rather that she was a sophisticated girl, one who had "been around," who was "fast" in a special sense. This ambiguity occurs frequently in English. Sometimes it happens because writers don't know that they are writing an ambiguous sentence. Other times, writers take advantage of the English lenguage which can permit such maneuverings of words and write "puns," or plays on words, in which double meanings occur. The ambiguity of the sentence "She looked fast," could be cleared up immediately by adding words to the original sentence or by writing the different sentences.

She looked fast.
She looked like a fast runner. (add words to make the meaning clear)

or

She looked quickly.
She looked sophisticated. (new sentences)

Part of this problem of ambiguity lies in the fact that in English, words may appear as more than one form class word; nouns may act like verbs, for instance, and vice versa. You can "man the ship," and you can be a "man on a ship." You can "sail on a ship," and you can "ship the sails." Unless you have some structural signals, however, such a sentence as, "The girl looked fast" is simply ambiguous.

When we have the signals to help us, then, we can tell the patterns represented and can understand the meaning of the sentence.

The girl looked careful.
(The word careful is an adjective; the sentence must be PATTERN TWO.)

The girl looked carefully.
(The word carefully is an adverb; the sentence must be PATTERN ONE.)

The doe looked warily.
(The word warily is an adverb; the sentence must be PATTERN ONE)

The doe looked wary.
(The word wary is an adjective; the sentence must be PATTERN TWO.)

Actually, ambiguity occurs only in simple, minimum structures such as we might find in newspaper headlines or in telegrams where we do not have structural signals to help tell us the meaning. Such a sentence as "Ship sails today" is ambiguous. Does the ship sail from port today, or does the buyer wish his sails shipped today? The problem can be solved very quickly by adding words to make the meaning clear.

The ship sails today.
Please ship my sails today.

Unless you are deliberately striving to create ambiguity, you should attempt at all times to write--and speak--sentences that can be understood easily and quickly by others.

LESSON ELEVEN: SENTENCE PATTERNS ONE AND TWO

Exercise A. The following sentences are ambiguous because the structural clues are missing and because words that represent more than one form class are used. From the original sentences, write two different ones in which the meaning is perfectly clear, and be prepared to explain your answers.

Example. Priscilla looks slow.
Priscilla looks around the room slowly.
Priscilla looks as if she is slow on her feet.

1. The gangster looks hard.

____

____

2. Joe looked better than Henry.

____

____

3. The new car appeared faster.

____

____

4. Student views reverse.

____

____

5. Army watches end.

____

____

Exercise B. Before the following sentences, write the number 1 if the sentence is a PATTERN ONE and a 2 if the sentence is a PATTERN TWO. More words have been added to the basic pattern, but your job is to distinguish the particular pattern in spite of the additional words.

Examples:

```
                    (D)   N      V   (Adv.)
      PATTERN ONE:  The birds  sang  sweetly.
                    (D)   N      V    Adj.
      PATTERN TWO:  The birds seemed sweet.
```

_____1. Joan laughed.

_____2. Joan laughed uproariously.

_____3. The hot lunch seemed nourishing.

_____4. The cat looked quickly.

_____5. The cat looked quick.

_____6. The cheese smells bad.

_____7. Henry ambled in.

_____8. The steak tasted rare.

_____9. The shipment of bicycles arrived on time.

_____10. I feel sad.

_____11. I feel extremely sad.

_____12. Louise skipped over to my house.

_____13. The pizza steamed deliciously.

_____14. The visitor grew obnoxious.

_____15. As the meeting progressed, the visitor suddenly grew more and more obnoxious.

_____16. The frightened girl passed out.

_____17. The pizza smelled delicious.

Exercise B. (continued)

_____18. Jane became bored by the whole shebang.

_____19. The party looked exciting.

_____20. The party finally ended with one, last song.

Exercise C.

1. Write ten original sentences following PATTERN ONE.
```
(D)  N      V        (Adv.)
The  bully  laughed  viciously.
```

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

Exercise C. (continued)

2. Write ten original sentences following PATTERN TWO.
(D) N V Adj.
My sister seemed cautious.

LESSON TWELVE:

SENTENCE PATTERNS THREE AND FOUR

The first two sentence patterns which we have studied are as follows:

PATTERN ONE: (D) N V (Adv.)
The girls giggled continually.

PATTERN TWO: (D) N V Adj.
The cyanide smelled deadly.

The verb in PATTERN ONE may be called an *intransitive verb* because it does not take an object. The verb in PATTERN TWO may be called a *linking verb* because it links the subject with an adjective which modifies the subject. It is an important fact to remember that the verb in our language is chiefly responsible for determining a particular type of pattern.

PATTERN THREE may be represented by the following symbols.

$$(D) \quad N_1 \quad V \quad (D) \quad N_2$$

1. My aunt abhors smelly dogs.
2. Most boys relish these sandwiches.
3. I prefer pandemonium.

This pattern shows a very common type of English sentence in which a relationship is shown between two completely different nouns. In sentence 1, the words "aunt" and "dogs" refer to two totally dissimilar objects. In sentences 2 and 3, the words "boys"--"sandwiches" and "I"--"pandemonium" also represent different objects or conditions. The verb in this pattern may be said to be *transitive* because it must *take an object*. In other words, the action of the *transitive* verb *passes over* from the first noun to the second noun. We show that the nouns are different in this pattern by using the subscripts 1, 2, and 3 with the letter *N*. (N_1, N_2, N_3). It is important to remember that this pattern expresses a common and, therefore, an important relationship among people, objects, and ideas in our language. There are literally thousands of verbs which may appear in PATTERN THREE sentences. Here are some samples of this pattern.

(D)	N_1	V	(D)	N_2
The	glutton	ate	many	pancakes.
	I	love		crackerjack.
The	speaker	continued	his	tirade.
A	stick	hit		me.
	Girls	detest		mice.
All	dogs	enjoy		bones.
My	brother	steals	my	candy.

There is a type of sentence which follows this pattern but in which the second noun is in fact the same as the first noun.

(D)	N	V	(D)	N
	She	hurt		herself.
	Jim	cut		himself.

Although this type of sentence seems to fit the pattern, the second noun--in this case, a special pronoun which may be called a *reflexive pronoun*--establishes this sentence as a special type of PATTERN THREE sentence.

PATTERN FOUR grows directly out of PATTERN THREE and may be represented in the following manner.

(D)	N_1	V	(D)	N_3	(D)	N_2
Our	secretary	gave	our	class	the	minutes.

This pattern adds another noun to the structure of PATTERN THREE. The action of the verb in this pattern *passes directly over* to a first noun, which we may call the *direct object*. The action then *passes indirectly over* to a second noun, which we may call an *indirect object*. Notice the sequence of the nouns in the sample sentence. The third noun "class" comes immediately after the verb "gave," instead of coming after the second noun, "minutes," which appears last. We may test the correct order of these nouns--which is "direct" and which is "indirect"--by asking this question: What did the secretary give? The class? (or) The minutes?

Obviously, she gave the "minutes". The "minutes," in turn were given to the class. Why can't we re-phrase the sentence, you may ask, as the following:

Our secretary gave the minutes to our class.
Our secretary gave our class the minutes.

Basically, the *meaning* of the two sentences is the same, but the *structure*--or the pattern--is definitely not.

Here are some examples of PATTERN FOUR sentences.

(D)	N_1	V	(D)	N_3	(D)	N_2
The	suitor	gave	his	sweetheart	an	anteater.
My	mother	bought		me	a	piggy bank.
The	government	sent		her	a	notice.
The	antique shop	found	the	lady	a	what-not.
His	father	gave		him	the	devil.

LESSON TWELVE:

SENTENCE PATTERNS THREE AND FOUR

Exercise A. Write five examples of each of the four basic sentence patterns that we have just considered. Try to make the sentences as original and interesting as possible, but be sure that you follow the basic pattern.

PATTERN ONE: (D) N V (Adv.)

____

____

____

____

____

PATTERN TWO: (D) N V Adj.

____

____

____

____

____

PATTERN THREE: (D) N_1 V (D) N_2

____

____

____

____

____

PATTERN FOUR: (D) N_1 V (D) N_3 (D) N_2

____

____

____

____

____

Exercise B. Before each sentence, write the number of the basic pattern which the sentence represents. Be prepared to explain your choice.

Example: 4 Several hours of music give me a headache.

______1. The hyena laughed hideously.

______2. She folded her handkerchief.

______3. My father gave me a piece of his mind.

______4. The study period seemed so dull.

______5. This chili tastes unbearably hot.

Exercise B. (continued)

_____ 6. This chili smells tasty.

_____ 7. My brother overseas sent me a Bavarian beer mug.

_____ 8. The hunters blasted the defenseless cow.

_____ 9. The geese cackled viciously.

_____10. My favorite cousin dropped me a line from Japan.

_____11. The sun shone brightly.

_____12. The sun seemed overwhelmingly bright.

_____13. The walrus roared for his mate.

_____14. The walrus roared an incredible love song.

_____15. Mrs. Lintwillow keeps so lovely!

_____16. I simply detest limp cornflakes.

_____17. Harry gave me the greatest idea for becoming a millionare.

_____18. Robert patted himself on the back for playing such a good game.

_____19. Robert bought himself a giant pizza for hitting the wining home run.

_____20. My father's cigar smells rancid just like a can of old bacon grease.

LESSON THIRTEEN:

Sentence Patterns Five, Six and Seven

You have examined and written examples of four basic English sentence patterns. Now we shall study the remaining three patterns that we shall consider. You remember that we stated that the word *be* and its other forms would be placed in a special category because it does not act like other verbs. The remaining sentence patterns that we shall study are all formed with the word *be.*

PATTERN FIVE is similar to PATTERN ONE, except that in PATTERN FIVE the adverb *must* occur. It cannot be set off by parentheses. Also, the adverb that follows the verb must be one of place or time.

(D)	N	be	Adv.
The	girl	is	here.
	She	is	late.

In this particular pattern, we cannot use adverbs like *carefully*, *quickly*, or *completely*.

The girl is *carefully*.
She is *completely*.

You also may recall that there are eight forms to the word *be*. You should learn the forms and learn how to use them in your language. They are as follows:

To be a carefree boy is fun.
I *am* carefree.
You *are* irresponsible.
He *is* unhappy.
He *was* disrespectful.
They *were* ecstatic.
Being a wrestler involves much training.
Having *been* an expert sailor, he won the race easily.

Here are some examples of PATTERN FIVE sentences:

(D)	N	be	Adv.
	She	was	tardy.
The	kittens	are	here.
	Henry	is	upstairs.
	I	am	curious.
	They	were	in.

PATTERN SIX has almost the same pattern as PATTERN FIVE except that the adjective follows the word be in PATTERN SIX, not the adverb. These are examples:

(D)	N	V	Adj.
The	roses	were	lovely.
	Oscar	was	insipid.
	Rosemary	is	sophisticated.
	John	is	desolate.
The	film	was	hilarious.
	James Bond	is	devastating.

Notice that in each PATTERN SIX sentence, the adjective in the predicate modifies the noun in the subject. The adjective may then be called a predicate adjective. This position for the adjective--as you remember--is one of the common places for adjectives, the other being before the noun.

PATTERN SEVEN, the last basic pattern that we shall examine, has the following structure:

(D)	N	be	(D)	N
	1			1
The	umpire	is	my	uncle.

As in PATTERN THREE, we find a noun, a verb (or word be), and another noun. What is the major difference between the two patterns, besides the difference between a verb and a form of the word be? Of course, the nouns in PATTERN THREE refer to different things while the nouns in PATTERN SEVEN refer to the same person, object, or idea. The following are examples of PATTERN SEVEN sentences:

(D)	N_1	be	(D)	N_2
	He	is	my	uncle.
The	cop	is	our	friend.
The	play	was	a	bomb.
The	party	was	a	brawl.
The	record	is	a	blast.
My	aunt	is	a	gossip.
	She	is	a	scream.
	They	were	a	fright.

For our purposes, these seven basic patterns will serve to illustrate the most common sentence patterns in English. Some linguists, however, have noted a few other patterns that seem to recur occasionally. You might be interested in knowing what they are, even though we won't be studying them.

(D)	N_1	V	(D)		N_1
The	baby	became	a		man.
	Laura	seemed	a	lovely	girl.
	Norman	remained	our		friend.

This pattern, of course, is quite similar to PATTERN SEVEN in that the first noun and the second noun refer to the same person or object. Actually there are only a few verbs in this pattern. The most important ones are become, seem, and remain. Speakers of English in Great Britain might add two other verbs, which are rather uncommon in this particular use in English.

(D)	N_1	V	(D)		N_1
	He	grew	a	fine	lad.
The	player	looked	a		fool.

Two other types of sentences that are considered by some linguists to be basic patterns are those like the following:

(D)	N_1	V	N_2	(D)	N_2
The	class	thought	Joan	a	brain.

In this type of sentence, the noun in the subject is followed by a second, different noun as an object of the verb, which, in turn, is followed by a third noun which *completes* the meaning of the second noun. In the preceding sentence, the word *brain* completes or further describes the object of the word *Joan*. The word *brain*, because it completes the meaning of the word *Joan*, is called an *objective complement*.

An interesting fact about this type of sentence is that an *adjective* may be an objective complement as well as a *noun*.

(D)	N_1	V	N_2	Adj.
The	class	thought	Joan	brainy.

A third and final type of unusual sentence pattern that we shall look at uses just a few verbs such as *elect* or *choose*.

(D)	N_1	V	N_2	N_2
Our	team	chose	David	Captain.
The	class	elected	Mary	secretary.

The words *captain* and *secretary*, because they complete the meaning of the words *David* and *Mary*, are also called objective complements. It is interesting to note that in this pattern an adjective *may not* act as an objective complement. We cannot say, for instance

Our team chose David courageous.
The class elected Mary competent.

Although we have examined three additional types of sentences, we will only be concerned with the first seven basic patterns that we have studied. These are the most common of English sentences--the ones we use most in our speaking and writing--and, therefore, they are the patterns that are most important for us at this time.

You might wonder why we have spent so much time on basic sentence patterns in English. Do we speak or write, using such simple sentences? Do we always use statements in English and never ask questions? Of course not.

Linguists think--and they are spending a great deal of time and energy trying to prove this idea--that by the time a person is five or six years old he has learned a few thousand words, the common, important sentence patterns in English, and the basic rules for changing these simple sentence patterns into new, longer, more descriptive, more complex, and more interesting sentence patterns.

How is this done? In the next lessons we hope you will begin to understand better just how this process occurs. This understanding seems to be at the heart of language itself: how a person learns--as he grows older and more mature--to form new, interesting, and correct sentences from a few original patterns.

LESSON THIRTEEN:

Sentence Patterns Five, Six, and Seven

Exercise A. Write five examples of sentence patterns five, six, and seven. Try to make the sentences as original and interesting as possible, but be sure that you follow the basic pattern. Write the appropriate symbols for the pattern above the words in each sentence.

Example: (D) N be Adv.
PATTERN FIVE: The pancakes are there.

PATTERN FIVE: (D) N be Adv.

____

____

____

____

____

PATTERN SIX: (D) N be Adj.

____

____

____

____

____

PATTERN SEVEN: (D) N_1 be N_1

Exercise B. Before each sentence, write the number of the basic pattern which the sentence represents. Write the appropriate symbols for the pattern above the words in the sentence. Be prepared to explain your choice.

Example: (D) N_1 V N_3 (D) N_2
____4____ My collie gave me a big slurp.

_____1. The senator is a brilliant speaker.

_____2. The senator is brilliant.

_____3. The senator is always punctual.

_____4. The milk tastes sour.

_____5. The television crackled unbearably.

_____6. My father gave me a sports car.

_____7. I like loud records.

_____8. The rocket roared into the air.

_____9. You are my sunshine.

_____10. Boring people give me a pain.

_____11. The hamburg was delicious.

_____12. She saw the ideal dress.

_____13. A bicycle seemed indespensible.

_____14. Laura appeared frightened.

_____15. Norman is at home.

_____16. You are your brother's keeper.

_____17. James acts pugnacious.

_____18. The rowboat is there.

_____19. The old rowboat is unsafe.

_____20. My trusty rowboat is my friend.

Exercise C. Write two examples of the seven basic sentence patterns that we have studied. Write the appropriate symbols for the pattern above the words in each sentence.

Example: (D) N V Adj.
PATTERN TWO: Our mother appeared faint.

1. PATTERN FOUR: ______________________________

____

2. PATTERN THREE: ______________________________

____

3. PATTERN ONE: ______________________________

____

4. PATTERN SIX: ______________________________

____

5. PATTERN FIVE: ______________________________

____

6. PATTERN SEVEN: ______________________________

____

7. PATTERN TWO: ______________________________

____

LESSON FOURTEEN:

Kernel Sentences and Transformations

In the past lessons, we have studied how words set together in English sentences. We found that sentences could be divided into two parts: the subject and predicate. We also found that two types of words could be found in English sentences: form class words and structure words. These types of words could be easily identified. For instance, we could even tell the kinds of words in a nonsense sentence, in which the meaning of the individual words was not known.

A stuny rang spickled the linnest blurbs tatly.

In other words, at this point, you can pretty well describe the types of words that are used to form English sentences. But this is only part of the mystery of your language. Next we have to ask ourselves how boys and girls—usually by the time they are 5 or 6 years old—learn *how* to put together words to make new but correct sentence patterns.

How do we learn to speak or write new sentences that we have never heard or read? Once we find out the answer to this question, we will know how language ability develops in individuals. For instance, these two sentences are very similar.

1. John is easy to please.
2. John is eager to please.

These are both very simple sentences, but they are really quite different. If they were alike, then we could change them both exactly the same way. Can we do this? We can change sentence 1 to

3. It was easy for us to please John.

but we cannot change sentence 2 to

4. It was eager for us to please John.

How did you know sentence 3 was a correct English sentence while sentence 4 was incorrect? Your knowledge of English grammar told you, but we can't quite explain the process right now.

Let us look at two other sentences created from sentences 1 and 2.

5. He was eager to please us.
6. He was easy to please us.

Again, your intuitive knowledge of English grammar tells you that sentence 5 is correct while sentence 6 is incorrect.

The next step in English grammar, then, would be to find some way to explain why sentences 3 and 5 are acceptable English sentences while sentences 4 and 6 are not acceptable.

One very interesting study which helps to explain how children learn to use English was made by Brown and Bellugi. Over a period of time, the researchers listened to children who were just learning how to talk as they talked with their mothers. The linguists found that there were three ways by which the children learned to talk.

First, the babies imitated their mothers' speech, but they dropped parts of words and even whole words from the mothers' speeches.

Mother	Baby
Daddy's briefcase	Daddy briefcase
Fraser will be unhappy	Fraser unhappy
He's going out	he go out

Second, the mothers repeated what the babies said, but the mothers added more words, hoping the babies would add these words also.

Baby	Mother
Baby highchair	Baby is in the high chair
Eve lunch	Eve is having lunch
Sat wall	He sat on the wall

Third, and this is very interesting, the babies would try to say completely new sentences which they had never heard before. Of course, they made mistakes, but they were not repeating what they had heard before.

New speeches by babies

A bags	Why it can't turn off?
A scissor	Cowboy did fighting me.
You naughty are	I digged a hole.
Put on it	

Linguists think that this process is just the way that individuals learn how to say and write new sentences.

We might look at this problem of language development in another way. We have studied seven basic sentences which are very common in English. Let us call these sentences kernel sentences. The PATTERN THREE sentence "John saw Bill" is a kernel sentence, for instance. All other sentences, or parts of sentences that we create from this particular sentence, are different or transformed parts of the original kernel sentence. We may call these new sentences transformations.

Kernel:	John saw Bill.
Transformations:	Did John see Bill? John didn't see Bill. John did see Bill. Who saw Bill? That John saw Bill. Bill was seen by John.

All of these transformations are different from the kernel sentence, but it seems obvious that they all stem from the original sentence, "John saw Bill." Could we speak or write new sentences or parts of sentences from a new pattern such as "The cobra saw the mongoose"? Of course we can because many years ago we learned the rules--or grammar--for creating new sentences from basic sentence patterns, or kernel sentences.

For instance, let's look at the rules for changing the kernel sentence "John saw Bill" to the transformed sentence "Bill was seen by John." This particular transformation is called the passive transformation.

John *saw* *Bill*.

1. The object takes the subject position.
   Bill was seen by *John*.

2. The proper form of *be* must be chosen.
   Bill *was* seen by John.

3. The past participle of the verb must be chosen.
   Bill was *seen* by John.

4. The original subject is now preceded by the word *by*.
   Bill was seen *by* John.

5. The original subject and the word *by* may be dropped entirely.
   Bill was seen.

Of course, you don't go through such a process every time you speak or write new sentences--at least not consciously. But in some amazing way you learned very early that this is the way you make the passive transformation.

Let's look at a rather long and fairly complex sentence. Is it difficult to understand grammatically? Not if we see how all the elements of the sentence are simply transformations of basic sentence patterns.

The tall laughing boy who is my brother tripped when he ran down the street because he didn't see the sleeping alligator.

the boy is tall -- PATTERN SIX
the boy laughs -- PATTERN ONE
the boy is my brother -- PATTERN SEVEN
the boy tripped -- PATTERN ONE
the boy ran down the street -- PATTERN ONE
the boy didn't see the sleeping alligator -- PATTERN THREE

If we look at language in this manner, then it doesn't seem quite so difficult to understand. Learning to use language simply means using basic patterns and other devices for making sentences longer and more exact until we have said most nearly what we wish to say.

LESSON FOURTEEN:

Kernel Sentences and Transformations

Exercise A. The following sentences are examples of the PATTERN THREE sentence. Change them to passive transformations by using the rules that we discussed.

Example: My hungry guest gulped down the sandwich.
The sandwich was gulped down by my hungry guest.

1. The inquisitive bee spied the flower.

___

2. Several bees stole the nectar.

___

3. Back to their hive, the bees carried their prize.

___

4. The queen bee saw them.

___

5. She ignored the lazy drones.

___

6. Two boys saw the horde of bees.

___

7. They heard the loud buzzing.

___

8. Hal and Bob climbed the tall tree.

____

9. The bees heard the boys.

____

10. Needless to say, the bees persuaded the boys to leave.

____

Exercise B. The following sentences are examples of transformed sentences. Break them down into their basic patterns or kernels and identify the parts.

Example: That unhappy, crying girl, who lost her ticket to the movies, is Jennifer Smith.

(D) N be Adj.
that girl is unhappy -- PATTERN SIX
(D) N V
that girl cries -- PATTERN ONE
(D) N V (D) N_2
that girl lost her ticket
to the movies -- PATTERN THREE
(D) N_1 be N_1
that girl is Jennifer Smith -- PATTERN SEVEN

1. My smiling, seven year old cousin is happy because he beat my slightly puzzled mother at chess.

(continued on p. 3)

2. Husky, athletic Esther Jones, who is the best skier in our class, finally fell and broke her leg.

3. The freedom-loving soldiers, who had never liked living under a dictator, fought fiercely to overthrow the strong, powerful tyrant.

4. Laughing and hooting loudly, the boisterous students, who were overjoyed that school was over, ran downthe street, while their teachers looked out the classroom room.

LESSON FIFTEEN

Expansion by Modification: Adjectives and Adverbs

We have stated that there are a few, basic kernel sentences in English from which all other new sentences--or transformations--are derived. It is obvious that people do not use just kernel sentences all of the time. If they did, then communication would be very limited and dull. As the speaker of English grows older and his thoughts become more complex, then he must find the words and new sentence patterns to express his more mature and complicated thoughts.

There is an added problem for expressing thoughts in written language, however. The speaker of English makes a statement or asks a question, and he then may make a movement, make a face, or use his voice--by making it softer or louder--to help give added meaning to his spoken statement. For instance, a girl may say to her friend,"Is that your brother?" The second girl may simply say in reply:

"My brother."

There are many ways that these two words may be spoken,and there are many physical gestures that can be added to make the intended meaning clear. Here are some possible different meanings:

"My brother?" she asked as her eyebrows wrinkled in a puzzled frown.

"My brother!" she said loudly as she covered her mouth and gasped quickly, her eyes open wide in fright.

"My brother," she sighed wearily as she shook her head wearily and shrugged her shoulders slowly.

Actually, the meaning of these sentences is still not as clear as it would be if we could actually see the person who was speaking and could observe her actions. The problem for the writer is to make his meaning clear with written words and sentence patterns only.

How does the writer expand his sentences and possibly make the meaning clearer? One way of doing this is by modification. Let us start with the simplest kind of modification: the single word adjective or adverb. Notice the following sentence:

PATTERN FOUR: A boy gave his parents much pleasure.

This is a basic PATTERN FOUR sentence. It is perfectly acceptable, but it is also so general that it is not very interesting. We want to know the answers to some questions. What kind of a boy? What kind of parents, for instance? Adjectives can help to give us answers to such questions.

Single adjectives help to qualify the meaning of the words which they modify. Whether they occur singly or in a series, they usually appear before the word which they modify.

a bright boy
a bright, polite boy
a bright, polite, serious boy
a bright, polite, serious, hard-working boy

Although these single word adjectives help to qualify the noun "boy" and help to make the thought more complex, they remain transformations from basic patterns. In order to show how all other elements of sentences are built from basic kernels, let us analyze the preceding phrase.

a bright boy derives from
PATTERN TWO: The boy looks bright.(or)
PATTERN SIX: The boy is bright.

a polite boy derives from
PATTERN TWO: The boy looks polite.(or)
PATTERN SIX: The boy is polite.

a serious boy derives from
PATTERN TWO: The boy looks serious.
PATTERN SIX: The boy is serious.

The hard-working boy derives from
PATTERN ONE: The boy works hard.

All of the adjectives, then, are seen to be transformations of kernel sentences.

We said that single word adjectives usually precede the word that they modify. You know that the other position for adjectives in English is after the word be or after the linking verbs such as seems, appears, looks. We could also write the adjectives which we have just used in the following manner:

The boy is bright.
The boy is bright and polite.
The boy is bright, polite, and serious.
The boy is bright, polite, serious, and hard-working.

The single word modifier, of course, can occur with nouns in the predicate, as well as with nouns in the subject.

A bright boy gave his parents
gave his old parents
gave his old, tired parents
gave his old, tired, foxy parents

All of these adjectives are transformations of kernel sentences.

his old parents derives from
PATTERN SIX: His parents were old.

his tired parents derives from
PATTERN SIX: His parents were tired.

his foxy parents derives from
PATTERN SEVEN: His parents were foxes.

The single word adjectives can also occur with other nouns in the predicate.

A bright boy gave his parents much pleasure.
much deserved pleasure
much deserved, unsolicited pleasure
much deserved, unsolicited, warm pleasure.

These adjectives all derive from PATTERN SIX kernel sentences.

PATTERN SIX: The pleasure was deserved.
The pleasure was unsolicited.
The pleasure was warm.

It is important to emphasize that although we have used many single adjectives to expand and make more precise the meaning, the basic sentence pattern remains.

PATTERN FOUR: The bright, polite, serious, hard-working
N1 V N3
boy gave his old, tired, foxy, parents

much deserved, unsolicited, warm
N2
pleasure.

More important, probably, than the use of adjectives in the sentence is the fact that such a sentence has value only as an example. It is indeed a verbal monstrosity. The writer may and should use adjectives, but he must choose them carefully. They should say what he wants them to say, but the ability to choose interesting and appropriate adjectives can only be developed by much thoughtful practice.

Other words may also be used as single word adjectives. Nouns, for instance, may do the work of adjectives.

Nouns as Adjectives

shoe salesman
airplane hanger
school bus
cat food
apple picker

These nouns used as adjectives derive from kernel sentences in the following manner:

PATTERN THREE: The salesman sells shoes.

PATTERN FIVE: The hanger is for airplanes.

PATTERN FIVE: The bus is for schools.

PATTERN FIVE: The food is for cats.

PATTERN THREE: The picker picks apples.

Verbs may also serve as single word adjectives. Later you will study how these verbal adjectives may be expanded into verbal phrases, but for the present we shall simply note that verbs may appear in the adjective position.

Verbs as Adjectives

laughing girl
jumping flea
running water
crying baby
itching arm

These adjectives derive from the following kernel sentences:

PATTERN ONE:
The girl laughs.
The flea jumps.
The water runs.
The baby cries.
The arm itches.

The past participle form of verbs may also be used as adjectives. These forms come from a kernel sentence by way of a passive transformation.

Past Participles as Adjectives

singed toast
hurt finger
broken arm

the singed toast derives from
The toast was singed (by "someone"). derives from
"Someone" singed the toast.

the hurt finger derives from
The finger was hurt (by "someone"). derives from
"Someone"hurt the finger.

the broken arm derives from
The arm was broken (by "someone"). derives from
"Someone" broke the arm.

Just as we can show the pattern of a kernel sentence by symbols, we may show the pattern of the passive transformation.

PATTERN FOUR: N_1 V (D) N2
Joe broke his arm.

PASSIVE TRANSFORMATION: (D) N_2 be Past. Part. (by N_1)
His arm was broken by Joe.

The symbols for the passive transformation show that the second noun becomes the first noun, the proper form of the word be must be chosen, the past participle form must appear, and the first noun--preceded by the word by--may or may not appear.

Although we have observed that the usual position for single word adjectives in English is before the noun or after linking verbs or the word be, we should realize that in some special cases, the adjective may occur directly after the word it modifies.

the body *politic*
God *almighty*
chapter *ten*
soldiers *three*
water *enough*
the journey *inland*

All of these adjectives are transformations of a PATTERN SIX sentence. "The body is politic," "God is almighty," "The chapter is ten(th)," "The soldiers are three," "The water is enough," and "The journey is inland."

The adjective gains added importance when it is used after the noun. Although the adjective is used for special emphasis here, you should remember not to over-use the adjective in this manner, or it will lose its force.

Adverbs may also be single word modifiers that are added to basic patterns to qualify simple ideas. Many adverbs, as you remember, end in the letters *ly*, but other words such as *here*, *now*, *then*, *there*, *often*, *late*, *still*, *almost*, and *sometimes* are also adverbs. One major difference between the adverb and adjective is that while the adjective has two, fairly constant positions, the adverb may be moved around quite easily to different positions in the sentence pattern.

Happily the boy gave his dog a bone.
Then the boy gave his dog a bone.
The boy *happily* gave his dog a bone.
The boy *then* gave his dog a bone.

The adverb may also be placed in different positions in relation to the verb and its helpers.

The boy *happily* was giving his dog a bone.
The boy *then* was giving his dog a bone.
The boy was *happily* giving his dog a bone.
The boy was *then* giving his dog a bone.

Adverbs are not usually placed at the end of such a sentence, but you may do so for special emphasis.

The boy gave his dog a bone *happily*.
The boy gave his dog a bone *then*.

Single word adjectives and adverbs, then, help to expand a sentence pattern without changing the basic pattern. They also help to make the meaning of the pattern clearer and more exact. However, you must learn how to use adjectives and adverbs so that they help your meaning and do not detract from it. You must practice using adjectives and adverbs, but you must also learn when to leave them out. If you simply tack on modifiers--as we have done in our sample sentences--you will write sentences that are overdone, awkward, and--worst of all--boring.

Your big job in learning how to write well is to know by experience and practice when you have chosen the best adjective or adverb for the best position in a sentence pattern.

LESSON FIFTEEN

Expansion by Modification: Adjectives and Adverbs

Exercise A. Write a noun with an adjective that may be derived from the following basic pattern sentences.

Example: The painter paints a house.
the house painter

1. The boys crashed the gate. ______________________________
2. The boys ate the pizza. ______________________________
3. The boys threw popcorn. ______________________________
4. He kicks a football. ______________________________
5. He plays basketball. ______________________________
6. The baby cries. ______________________________
7. The girl screams. ______________________________
8. The deer hides. ______________________________
9. The student failed. ______________________________
10. He chases girls. ______________________________
11. The girl is frightened. ______________________________
12. The lady is charming. ______________________________
13. The wreckers destroyed the house. ______________________________
14. The net was tightened. ______________________________
15. The hotdog was delicious. ______________________________
16. The lake is frozen. ______________________________
17. He skiis on the water. ______________________________
18. The rope is loosened. ______________________________
19. The movie was incredible. ______________________________
20. The dancer jumped. ______________________________

Exercise B. Using Adjectives. In the following paragraph, the adjectives have been left out. From the adjectives here listed, write in those words that help to make the paragraph more accurate and interesting.

long
tiny-looking
dark
pine
gaily-colored
brilliant

many
crisp
ski
green
narrow
leather
deep

white
ski
massive
bright
fast-moving
blue

Mary stood in the _________, _________ snow and looked down the _________ slope. _________, _________ mountains rose behind the _____-_____ _________ lodge. The _________ _________ _________ trees came right down to the _________ slope next to her. _____-_____ jackets and _________ caps dotted the hill. _____-_____ skiers swished back and forth along the _________ snow. She put on her _________ _________ gloves. Her _________ eyes squinted. She took a _________ breath and shoved off.

__Exercise C__. __Using Adverbs__. In the following paragraph, the adverbs have been left out. From the adverbs listed, write in those words that help to make the writing more accurate and interesting.

happily
up
frantically
slowly
painfully

suddenly
down
cleanly
gently

weakly
quickly
forcefully
up
slowly

__________ Dan heard a terrified shout. He looked __________ over the water. A tiny head was bobbing __________ and __________, and a thin arm was waving __________. Racing along the hot sand, he dived __________ into the water and swam __________ to the sinking head. A frightened face looked __________ at him. It was a little boy. Dan got a firm grip on his chin and towed him to the shore. He picked up the boy __________ and carried him to the dry sand. The boy coughed __________, rolled over __________, and then smiled __________.

LESSON SIXTEEN:

Expansion by Auxiliary or Helping Verbs

Another way of expanding the basic sentence patterns is by adding *auxiliary* or *helping verbs*. These auxiliaries, like the single word adjectives or adverbs, help to explain in more detail the meaning of a sentence.

PATTERN FOUR: The $\overset{N_1}{\text{boy}}$ $\overset{V}{\underline{\text{gave}}}$ his $\overset{N_3}{\text{parents}}$ $\overset{N_2}{\text{pleasure}}$
The boy *had* *been* *giving* his parents pleasure.
The boy *was* *going* *to* *give* his parents pleasure.
The boy *should* *have* *been* *about* *to* *give* his parents pleasure.

As you can see from the preceding sentences, the auxiliaries help to make the action of the verb clearer. The intended meaning—the attitudes or feelings— of the speaker or the writer toward the event that he is describing is clarified. Notice that no matter how many auxiliaries are added, the sentence pattern remains the same. It is important to see that the *last* word in the verb phrase is the main verb. In all of these example sentences, the verb *give* is the main one.

The *simple* verb--without auxiliaries--merely sets the time of an action without making the action specific.

I *go* to the YMCA.

The verb *go* in this sentence leaves many questions to be answered. When do you go? Are you going now? Will you go tomorrow, next week? Auxiliaries help to answer these questions.

I *have* *been* *going* to the YMCA on Saturdays.
I *am* *going* to the YMCA right now.
I *shall* *go* to the YMCA tomorrow.
I *may* *be* *going* to the YMCA all of next week if we don't go to Washington, D.C.

One type of auxiliary shows the speaker's mood or attitude about an event happening. The indicative mood shows that what is reported as happening may be accepted as a fact.

Norman catches colds. He should not go skiing.

The indicative verb catches tells us that it is a fact, "Norman catches colds." Therefore, he should not go skiing.

The subjunctive mood shows a doubtful or uncertain state of affairs.

If Norman be susceptible to colds,
he should not go skiing.

If I were Batman, I'd clean up
Gotham City.

I wish I were a millionaire; I'd
sail to the South Seas.

The underlined verbs all show the subjunctive mood and represent doubtful conditions.

The subjunctive mood in English, then, may help to make clear the mood of the speaker or writer toward events that are imaginary. The subjunctive mood may show intention, probability, possibility, necessity, or hope.

V

PATTERN ONE: I will go to Boston.
I may go to Boston.
I might go to Boston.
I can go to Boston.
I must go to Boston.
I should go to Boston.

In order to show the subjunctive mood, we may add to the verb mood auxiliaries--or modals-- which help to signify a non-actual situation. Such modals are the words can, could, shall, will, might, must, and should.

The modals always occur directly before the simple form--or basepart--of the verb. We may show such an addition to our basic sentence pattern by adding the symbol "M" for modal.

Base	S-part	Past	Past Part.	Pres. Part.
go	goes	went	gave	going

N V
Girls go.

(D) N M V
The girls may go.

The verb may also be expanded by adding such auxiliaries or helping words as have, has, or had to the past participle form of the verb.

N V
PATTERN ONE: Ray goes to scouts.
Ray has gone to scouts.
Ray had gone to scouts.
They have gone to scouts.

We can show these helpers by the letter "H" in the sentence patterns. Notice that the past participle form of the verb always follows this helper. We can show the past participle form of the verb by using the letters "PP."

N H PP
PATTERN ONE: Mary has run home often.

N H PP
PATTERN ONE: Mike had sung in choir for years.

N H PP
PATTERN THREE: The girls have thrown out all their records.

Although the words have, has, had may be helpers, they of course may also be main verbs.

PATTERN THREE: He has a new sailboat.

PATTERN THREE: She had a bad cold.

PATTERN THREE: They all have detention tonight.

Another way of expanding the verb is by adding some form of the word be--am, are, is, was, or were--to the present participle, or -ing form of the verb.

PATTERN ONE: I go.
I am going.
They are going.
She was going.
He is going.
They were going.

We can show this expansion by using be to show the addition of the word be and the form Pres. P. to show the present participle form of the verb.

(D) N be Pres. P.
PATTERN ONE: The boys were going to the movies.

There are some other auxiliaries which help to expand the verb, such as the words about and going.

PATTERN FOUR: John is about to give his dog a bone.
John is going to give his dog a bone.
John was about to give his dog a bone.
John was going to give his dog a bone.

Such general auxiliaries we can designate the letter "H." Remember that the last word in the verb phrase is the main verb.

N_1 H H V (D) N_3 (D) N_2
PATTERN FOUR: John is about to give his dog a bone.

The practice of expanding the verb in spoken English by the use of helpers is a very common one. In order to make our verbs say precisely what we want them to say, we all add modals and auxiliaries.

I *could be about ready to go* to the party if I didn't have to mow the lawn!

Such a sentence would be quite normal in speech. We understand clearly what the situation is. In written English, however, the writer must be very careful in his use of verb helpers. For the most part, simple verb forms *can and should be* substituted for long, complex verb forms. Modals and auxiliaries do not carry as much meaning as a simple, direct verb.

I *should be going to be about finished* with my homework.

I *finished* my homework.

Since the modals and auxiliaries do not signify direct meaning, if we have too many of them in a sentence, then we may have a weak sentence. In this lesson, you have been studying how auxiliaries may be added to the verb so that you can understand how this is done in our language.

You should remember that *in written English, though, the simple verb form is usually the best*. Second, if you *do* use modals and auxiliaries to expand your sentence patterns or to make your meaning clearer, you should save them for the few occasions when they are really needed.

LESSON SIXTEEN:

Expansion by Auxiliary or Helping Verb

EXERCISE A. Under the symbols, write original sentences. Before each sentence, write the number of the basic sentence pattern that it represents. These are the new symbols that we have discussed.

M - modal (should, would, could, might)
H - helping verb (have, has, had, going, about)
P.P. - past participle (run, sung, talked, thrown)
Pres. P. - present participle (-ing form: running, singing, talking, throwing)

1. (D) N H PP Adv.

2. (D) N_1 be Pres. P N_2

3. (D) N M V Adv.

4. (D) N_1 M V N_2

5. (D) N_1 H PP (D) N_3

(D) N_2

6. N_1 M be (D) N_1

(continued on page 2)

7. (D) N_1 M H PP (D)

Adj. N_1

8. (D) N M be Adv.

9. (D) N M V Adj.

10. (D) N M H be PP

Adv.

EXERCISE B. The following sentences have complex verb phrases with modals and auxiliaries added to the main verbs. Re-write the sentences by making the verb phrases as simple as possible. Underline the verb phrases. Before each sentence, write the number of the basic sentence pattern that it represents.

Example: The dancers should have been about to stop when the whistle blew.
The dancers stopped when the whistle blew.

_____ 1. George may have been about to go fishing when his mother called.

_____ 2. The captain has been giving orders.

_____ 3. Any talkers must be going home when the movie starts.

_____ 4. Little boys may like licorice.

_____ 5. Many husbands may have given their wives vacuum cleaners.

_____ 6. Mary ought to become a starlet.

_____ 7. Our senior play should have been the best one ever.

_____ 8. The coats ought to have been here.

_____ 9. Larry might have been about to give his famous recitation of the bob-tailed tom-cat in the blackberry bushes.

_____ 10. All members should have been going to display their entries.

EXERCISE C. Write five (5) original sentences using these verbs and some of the follow auxiliaries.

should
could
might
may
going

has
have
had
about
be

throw
sing
climb
laugh
swim

LESSON SEVENTEEN

Expansion by Prepositional Phrases

Prepositional phrases are also used to expand basic sentence patterns in our language. You remember that we said that nine simple prepositions are the most important ones in English.

at
by
for
from
in
on
of
to
with

Prepositions are used to connect nouns, pronouns, or groups of words to other groups of words.

PATTERN THREE: The boy threw the eraser. (Which boy?)

The boy (with the red hair) threw the eraser.

The preposition with connects the word group the red hair to the noun, boy. The prepositional phrase with the red hair answers the question, "Which boy?" Such a phrase helps to make clearer the general word, boy, and, in the process, of course, expands the sentence.

As you can see, each prepositional phrase must contain a preposition and a noun or pronoun--which is called the object of the preposition. Determiners and modifiers may also be added.

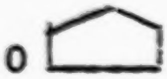
P N
(with hair)
P (D) N
(with the hair)
P (D) Adj N
(with the red hair)
P (D) Adj Adj N
(with the bright red hair)

To show the prepositional phrase in a sentence, we will use the parentheses and the letter "P" to signify preposition.

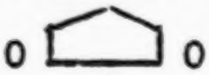
Although there are other prepositions in English besides the nine simple ones that we have noted, the relationships that prepositions have to other words or groups of words may be grouped into three categories. We have studied these three groups before, but let's review them.

Relation of location

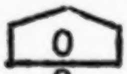
P N
(at the house)



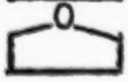
P N
(by the house)



P N
(in the house)

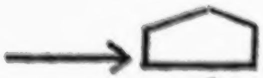


P N
(on the house)



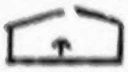
Relation of direction

P N
(to the house)

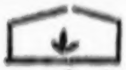


P N
(from the house)

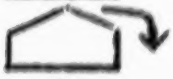
P N
(up the house)



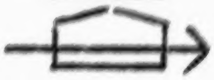
P N
(down the house)



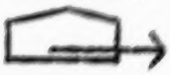
P N
(off the house)



P N
(through the house)



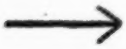
P N
(out the house)



Relation of association

P N
(of the Jones' family)

P N
(for the cause of liberty)



P N
(with the revolutionists)

Prepositional phrases, then, are added to basic sentence patterns to show a relationship among words and other words and groups of words. As with other parts of sentences which expand or modify, they do not change the basic sentence pattern, and they derive from other sentence patterns.

P N
PATTERN FIVE: The student is (from Eastman School).
PATTERN ONE: The student sings beautifully. becomes
PATTERN ONE: The student (from Eastman School) sings beautifully.

The noun in the prepositional phrase can also be related to another prepositional phrase, and that noun may be related to another phrase as well.

PATTERN ONE: The student sings beautifully.

P N
PATTERN FIVE: The Eastman School is (for music) becomes
P N P N
The student (from Eastman School) (of music)
sings beautifully.

P N
PATTERN FIVE: The Eastman School is (in Rochester, New York)

becomes
P N P N
The student (from Eastman School) (of music)
P N
(in Rochester, New York) sings beautifully.

Such prepositional phrases may be added to basic sentence patterns indefinitely. Of course, if we use too many prepositional phrases, our sentences become awkward and boring. Your task, as always, is to learn how to choose the right number and type of prepositional phrases that are just right for your meaning. Only by much practice will you be able to do this.

Prepositional phrases can also be used to show a relationship among words and other words in the predicate as well as among words in the subject.

PATTERN THREE: The student sang a song.

-sang a song P N
PATTERN FIVE: The song was (from a collection) becomes
P N
-sang a song (from a collection)
P N
PATTERN FIVE: The collection was (of show tunes) becomes

-sang a song P N
(from a collection) P N
(of show tunes)

P N
PATTERN FIVE: The show tunes were (from Broadway hits) becomes

-sang a song P N
(from a collection)
P N
(of show tunes) P N
(of Broadway hits)

PATTERN FIVE: The Broadway hits were (from 1920 to 1930).

becomes

-sang a song P N
(from a collection)
P N
(of show tunes) P N
(of Broadway hits)
P N
(from 1920 to 1930).

To the general word song, we have added a number of prepositional phrases which help to tell us precisely what kind of song was sung. An effective writer would probably never use prepositional phrases alone for expansion and modification, but the following, complete sentence would at least show how prepositional phrases may provide modification.

> The student from Eastman School of Music in Rochester, New York, sang a song from a collection of show tunes of Broadway hits from 1920 to 1930.

Most prepositional phrases follow directly the word which they are related to.

P N
The boy (with the red hair) is my friend.
P N
The mouse ran (up the clock.)
P N P N
Alice is afraid (of bats) (in the dark.)

Some prepositional phrases are used to connect whole sentences together, such as *on the whole*, *on the other hand*, *in summary*, or *by the way*. Such prepositional phrases may be called *transitional* phrases because they connect sentences or paragraphs. These phrases may be moved around quite easily in the sentence.

P N
(On the whole), the students worked hard.
P N
The students, (on the whole), worked hard.
P N
The students worked hard (on the whole.)

Although the nine simple prepositions are used most in English, there are many other words and combinations of words that serve as prepositions.

There are *double* prepositions, for instance. We may take the simple preposition *in* and add the word *side* to make the double preposition *inside*. The following are used as double prepositions:

outside
underneath
upon
within
without
towards

Sometimes we may use prepositions of two or three words. These are called *group* prepositions.

in back of
in front of
inside of
on board
on top of
outside of
according to
by way of
due to
in accordance with
in addition to
in case of
in place of
in regard to
in view of
on account of
on behalf of
with respect to

Such group prepositions should only be used to make meaning clear. Many times a simple preposition will be shorter and more precise than a group preposition. Use group prepositions sparingly. If you use them often, your writing becomes too wordy and dull.

Group prep. Esther was in back of the bath house.
Double prep. Esther was behind the bath house.
Simple prep. Esther was by the bath house.

Group prep. George sat smirking on top of the flag pole.
Double prep. George sat smirking upon the flag pole.
Simple prep. George sat smirking on the flag pole.

Group prep. I'm playing center on behalf of George.
Simple prep. I'm playing center for George.

Which prepositions are the best choices in the preceding sentences? In most cases, the simple preposition may be the right one. You should know the other prepositions that are available for you to use in English. You can then use them when they are appropriate.

LESSON SEVENTEEN:

Expansion by Prepositional Phrases

EXERCISE A. In the following sentences, mark off the prepositional phrases by parenthetical marks, the preposition by the letter "P," and the object of the preposition by the letter "N" for noun.

Example: P N

Jane went (to the hairdresser.)

1. The dog and cat raced down the street.
2. They literally flew through Mrs. Brown's new, sparkling-clean laundry.
3. We heard them barking and spitting underneath a garage.
4. Over Mrs. Gaylord's new roses they ran.
5. Throughout the neighborhood people were looking out their windows.
6. Without a pause, they ran into our garage, jumped out of an open window, and scurried in front of a car.
7. Finally the cat jumped on top of Mr. Henderson's new car.
8. The dog scratched and clawed against the door of the shiny automobile.
9. Mr. Henderson threw a great bucket of water on the yelping dog.
10. With great dignity, the cat leaped off the car, stalked away from the wet dog, and strolled calmly down the street.

EXERCISE B. Write ten original sentences using some of the suggested prepositions. Mark your prepositional phrases as you did in Exercise A.

at
by
for
on
to
with
from
in
of
beside
outside
toward
upon
within
without
in case of
by way of
according to
on top of
with respect to

P N

Example: (In case of fire) throw on this gasoline.

EXERCISE C. In the following sentences, double prepositions have been used. Re-write the sentences, substituting simple prepositons when you can. Be prepared to explain why your choice is better.

Example: By dint of great strength, George placed the Volkswagon on the sidewalk.
With great strength, George placed the Volkswagon on the sidewalk.

1. By means of hook or crook, I'll go skiing.
2. I like ice cream in relation to fresh strawberries.
3. All the girls like Paul on account of his long hair.
4. Larry's father thought he was hiding in back of the garage.
5. Mary will be waiting in front of the pizza place.
6. Everyone must go on board the ship.
7. Ellen laughed and laughed outside of the classroom.
8. The rickety old bus went home by way of all the back roads.
9. Mr. Kerstetter's new job is in connection with the telephone company.
10. We finally found the Dunn's dog inside of the fifty gallon drum.

LESSON EIGHTEEN:

Expansion by Relative and Subordinate Included Patterns

Basic sentence patterns may be expanded by adding *relative included patterns*. Such parts of sentences are derived from basic sentence patterns; they have a subject and predicate. They are called *relative* patterns because they are related to some other word or group of words in the sentence. They are called *included* patterns because they are *included* within another pattern. Relative patterns are introduced by structure words such as the following: *who*, *whom*, *that*, *which*, *whose*, *whoever*, and *whomever*.

(D) N_1 V (D) N_2
PATTERN THREE: The boy owns a car.

(D) N_1 be (D) N_1
PATTERN SEVEN: The boy is my friend. *becomes*

(D) N_1 R V (D) N be (D) N_1
PATTERN SEVEN: The boy [who owns a car] is my friend.

The relative included pattern *who owns a car* derives from the basic pattern *the boy owns a car*. The relative pattern is introduced by the structure word *who* and is related to the noun *boy*. The relative patterns always follow the word to which they are related. In order to show such a pattern, we shall use brackets and the letter "R" to stand for the relative *who* which introduces the pattern.

In every case the relative patterns modify--or, in other words, make more specific a noun or pronoun. Therefore, the relative patterns modify--or do the work of the form class word, adjective--within the basic sentence pattern. The relative patterns, unlike single word adjectives which *precede* the word which they modify, always *follow* the word which they modify.

Any of the basic sentence patterns may use relative patterns to show relationships among words and other groups of words.

PATTERN ONE: The man lives down the street.

PATTERN SIX: The man is tall. *becomes*
(D) N R V P (D) N be Adj.
PATTERN SIX: The man [who lives (down the street)] is tall.

PATTERN THREE: The rat has white whiskers.

PATTERN ONE: The rat scurried away. becomes
(D) N R V Adj. N V Adv
PATTERN ONE: The rat [which has white whiskers] scurried away.

PATTERN THREE: Lula May saw the rat.

PATTERN TWO: Lula May became pale. becomes
N R V (D) N V Adj
PATTERN TWO: Lula May [who saw the rat] became pale.

PATTERN THREE: Ellen lifts weights.

PATTERN SIX: Ellen is strong. becomes
N R V N be Adj
PATTERN SIX: Ellen [who lifts weights] is strong.

PATTERN THREE: Ellen can lick any boy.

PATTERN SEVEN: Ellen is the class champion. becomes
N_1 R M V (D) N be Adj N_1
PATTERN SEVEN: Ellen [who can lick any boy] is class champion.

The relative included pattern does not determine the basic sentence pattern. Relative patterns can, of course, also appear in the predicate of a sentence.

PATTERN SIX: The ice cream was delicious.

PATTERN THREE: Tony gobbled the ice cream. becomes
N V (D) N_2 R be Adj.
PATTERN THREE: Tony gobbled the ice cream [which was delicious.]

The relative pattern may be related to the object of a preposition.

PATTERN THREE: We saw the headless horseman.

PATTERN SIX: We were afraid of the headless horseman. becomes
N be Adj P (D) Adj N R
PATTERN SIX: We were afraid (of the headless horseman) [whom
N N
we saw.]

PATTERN THREE: Nobody noticed the fire hose.

PATTERN ONE: We parked on top of the fire hose. becomes
N V P N P (D) Adj. N R N
PATTERN ONE: We parked (on top) (of the fire hose) [which no
V
one noticed.]

It should be obvious that included relative clauses may be used in almost endless ways for modifying words in basic sentence patterns and thereby expanding them. It is important to remember that the relative pattern follows directly the word to which it is related.

Another type of pattern which may be included with other basic sentence patterns is the subordinate included pattern. The subordinate pattern may do the work of form class adverb and answer the questions of where? why? when? how? Subordinate included patterns are introduced by such structure words as the following: after, until, where, if, when, while, after, since, although, though, because, and unless.

PATTERN THREE: She loves me.

PATTERN THREE: I spend all of my allowance on her. becomes

PATTERN THREE: She loves me [because I spend all (of my allowance)

(on her.)]

We shall use the letter "S" to show the subordinator structure word. Notice that this subordinate included pattern, "because I spend all of my allowance on her," answers the question, "why?"

Subordinate included patterns may also derive from any of the basic patterns.

PATTERN ONE: The sneaky cat leaped there.

PATTERN THREE: She heard a noise. becomes

PATTERN ONE: The sneaky cat leaped there [since she heard a noise.]

PATTERN ONE: I will stomp and scream.

PATTERN FOUR: My mother gives me a ticket to Bermuda. becomes
N H V V S (D) N_1 V
PATTERN ONE: I will stomp and scream [unless my mother gives
N_3 (D) N_2 P N
me a ticket (to Bermuda.)]

PATTERN SEVEN: Mary is my best friend.

PATTERN SEVEN: She is an extravagantly pretty girl. becomes
N_1 be (D) N_1 S N be (D) Adv.
PATTERN SEVEN: Mary is my friend [although she is an extravagantly
adj. N
pretty girl.]

It is important to note that subordinate included patterns do not have a fixed order. Unlike relative patterns, they may be moved around within the basic sentence pattern.

PATTERN THREE: The boys liked Jane.

PATTERN SIX; She was pretty.
S N be Adj.
[Since she was pretty] the boys liked Jane.
S N be Adj.
The boys liked Jane [since she was pretty.]
S N be Adj
Jane [since she was pretty] was liked by the boys.

Subordinate included patterns provide another way in English for you to make your meaning clearer in written sentences. When such patterns are used, sentences are expanded and become more complex. As with all methods of expansion, you should not be afraid to try new arrangements of patterns until you have the sentence--or sentences--that sound best to you and that make your meaning just as clear as possible.

LESSON EIGHTEEN:

Expansion by Relative and Subordinate Included Patterns

EXERCISE A. In the following sentences, identify the relative included patterns by the method which has been used in this lesson. Also write before the sentence the number of the basic sentence pattern. Remember, included patterns do not represent the basic sentence pattern.

Example: (D) Adj N R V Adv P N be
Our class pictures [which come out (in February)] are
Adj
funny. PATTERN SIX

_____ 1. Lloyd, who is the best skier in our class, fell and broke his ankle.

_____ 2. He has skied in Austria, which has some of the finest winter resorts in the world.

_____ 3. Aspen, Colorado, whose slopes are almost always covered by a dry powder snow, is another favorite.

_____ 4. He prefers skis and boots that are the most expensive.

_____ 5. The ski instructors whom he admires the most are those without fear.

_____ 6. The story that he told us was incredible.

_____ 7. He went to a golf course which is next door to his house.

_____ 8. He climbed up a hill which was quite gentle and small.

_____ 9. Then the boy who had skied all over the world went down this novice slope.

_____10. The result, which we still can't believe, is a broken ankle.

EXERCISE B. Combine the following pairs of basic sentence patterns into one basic sentence with a relative included pattern. Be prepared to explain the reasons for your choices.

Example: We have a neighbor.
He has a piper cub.
We have a neighbor who has a piper cub.

1. Mrs. Barry has a pet parrot.
She is very attached to it.

2. Esther prints a newspaper.
Few students read it.

3. I have a brother.
He is a chemical engineer.

4. Some boys arrived late at the party.
We were not expecting them.

5. The teacher asked for the homework.
Nobody had it.

6. Larry's mother always bakes cookies on Saturday morning.
She is the most appreciated mother in our neighborhood.

7. The last period of the school day is free time.
We like this time best.

8. Joe has not come home yet.
Joe's dog chased Mrs. Sweaton's cat.

9. The story was not read.
We preferred the story.

10. Mrs. Grundy lets us have a buzz session if we're good.
We all like Mrs. Grundy.

EXERCISE C. Write five original sentences with relative included patterns, using the following relatives.

who
which
that
whose
whom

EXERCISE D. In the following sentences, identify the subordinate included patterns by the method which we have used in this lesson. Write before the sentence the number of the basic sentence pattern.

Example: S N_1 V (D) N_2 N M V P (D) N
[If I mow the lawn,] I can go (to the pool.) PATTERN ONE

_____ 1. Though Pete has only lived here six months, we are sure of his victory.

_____ 2. When he first moved in, he made many friends.

_____ 3. Pete has been on the student council since the first week of school.

_____ 4. Unless we are mistaken, he is honest and conscientious.

_____ 5. While his opponent stayed with a small group of friends, Pete has met many new people.

_____ 6. Mary and George, because they trusted him, became his managers.

_____ 7. Because Pete ran an honest campaign, most students trusted him.

_____ 8. Pete is tough if he is double-crossed.

_____ 9. Pete's opponent, since he had held office before, predicted a landslide.

_____10. When the ballots were counted, we knew Pete had won the contest.

EXERCISE E. Combine the following pairs of sentences into one basic sentence pattern with a subordinate included pattern. Be prepared to give reasons for your choices.

1. We sold more copies of the yearbook.
   We lowered the price.

2. I must mow the lawn tonight.
   My mother says so.

3. The principal talked quietly to us.
   He was very serious.

4. My old model-T Ford will start.
   You turn the crank.

5. Joe had a bad cold.
   He went to the swimming meet.

6. I couldn't do my homework.
   All my brothers and sisters were jumping and yelling.

7. You spend the time tonight.
   You will be ready for the test.

8. We saw the cost of the movie.
   We changed our minds about going.

9. We were all tired.
   We finished cleaning up the gym.

10. You are given too much candy.
    You will be sick.

EXERCISE F. Write five original sentences with subordinate included patterns, using the following subordinators:

until
after
since
because
although

LESSON NINETEEN

Expansion by Included Verbal Patterns

Many professional writers and teachers of writing state that one sign of a mature writer is the ability to use verbals. Like other types of modification, included verbal patterns help to express more precise meaning and to qualify and to modify other words or groups of words in the sentence. Verbal patterns also expand the basic sentence.

Participles. One type of verbal included pattern is called a participle. Participles are words like crouching, falling, jumping, running, burnt, strewn, enclosed, perfumed, packed, and bumped. Some participles end in the letters -ing. Others may end in the letters -n, -t, or -ed. Like other included patterns, verbal patterns are derived from basic sentence patterns.

PATTERN THREE: John heard the commotion.

PATTERN ONE: John ran to the place of disturbance. becomes

Adj V (D) N N V P (D) N
⟨Hearing the commotion,⟩ John ran (to the place)
P N
(of disturbance.)

The verbal included pattern "hearing the commotion" is derived from the basic sentence pattern, "John heard the commotion." The verbal provides a way of combining the two patterns without repeating the noun, "John." You should realize that the second pattern could just as well been converted into a verbal included pattern. The choice is up to the writer. which sounds better? Which states your intended meaning better?

Adj V P (D) N P N N_1
PATTERN THREE: ⟨Running (to the place) (of disturbance),⟩ John
V (D) N
heard the commotion.

It is obvious, however, in this example that the first choice is better. It seems reasonable that John heard the commotion first, and then he ran to the disturbance. How you make such decisions like these determines your style of speaking or writing. Especially in writing, you should consider how your choice of words and patterns of words will convey your meaning.

In order to distinguish it from other patterns, we shall show the verbal included pattern by the symbol of the angular brackets: ⟨running⟩. Notice also that we place the letters Adj. at the beginning of the participle running and the letters V at the end of the word. These symbols show that the participle is both adjective and verb.

Participles may derive from other basic sentence patterns as well.

PATTERN ONE: The boy crouched low.

PATTERN THREE: The boy saw the twelve-point buck. becomes
Adj. V Adv (D) N_1 V (D) Adj. N_2
⟨Crouching low,⟩ the boy saw the twelve-point buck.

PATTERN ONE: The snow falls quietly.

PATTERN TWO: The snow seemed friendly and soft. becomes,
Adj V Adv (D) N V Adj Adj
⟨Falling quietly,⟩ the snow seemed friendly and soft.

PATTERN ONE: The sand settled into every moving part.

PATTERN THREE: The sand stopped the motor. becomes
Adj V P (D) Adj N (D) N_1
⟨Settling (into every moving part,)⟩ the sand
V (D) N_2
stopped the motor.

As we have stated, not all participles end in the letters -ing.

N_1 V (D) N_2
PATTERN THREE: John burned the toast.
N_1 V Adv (D) N_2
PATTERN THREE: We threw out the toast. becomes
Adj V P N N_1 V Adj (D) N_2
⟨Burned (by John,)⟩ we threw out the toast.

We know immediately that this construction is incorrect. As the sentence stands, it looks as if "we" were burned by John. Such a construction is called a dangling participle. We must therefore apply the passive transformation to the second pattern.

Adj V P N (D) N H V Adv
⟨Burned (by John,)⟩ the toast was thrown out.

Remember, the sentence, "The toast was thrown out" is not a basic sentence pattern, but a passive transformation of the basic pattern, "We threw out the toast." -- a PATTERN THREE sentence.

PATTERN THREE: His mother walked him home.

PATTERN SIX: Eddie was mortified. becomes
Adj V Adv P (D) N N be Adj
PATTERN SIX: ⟨Walked home (by his mother)⟩ Eddie was mortified.

PATTERN THREE: The high fence enclosed the pool.

PATTERN SIX: The pool was hidden. becomes
Adj V P (D) Adj N (D) N H V
PATTERN SIX: ⟨Enclosed (by a high fence,)⟩ the pool was hidden.

Infinitives. Another type of verbal included pattern is the infinitive. Infinitives are verb forms like to walk, to run, to laugh, to love, to wash, and to swim. Notice that infinitives always begin with the word to. They also derive from basic sentence patterns.

PATTERN ONE: We stop for a hamburg.

PATTERN ONE: We stop for fun. becomes
N V P (D) N be N
PATTERN SEVEN: ⟨To stop (for a hamburg)⟩ is fun.

PATTERN ONE: I sing lustily.
N be Adj
PATTERN SIX: Singing is enjoyable.
N V Adv be Adj
PATTERN SIX: ⟨To sing lustily⟩ is enjoyable.

N_1 V (D) N_2
PATTERN THREE: I see the dawn.

PATTERN SIX: Seeing the dawn is exciting.
N V (D) N be Adj
PATTERN SIX: ⟨To see the dawn⟩ is exciting.

Infinitive included patterns may also be used in the predicate of a sentence, as the object of the verb or after the word <u>be</u>.

```
PATTERN THREE:  I like driving.

PATTERN THREE:  I drive my father's car.   becomes
                        N    V   (D)  (D)      N
PATTERN THREE:  I like ⟨to drive my father's car.⟩
```

```
PATTERN THREE:  He has an ambition.

PATTERN SEVEN:  His ambition is becoming President.   becomes
                (D)    N     be  N       V       N
PATTERN SEVEN:  His ambition is ⟨to become President.⟩
```

<u>Gerunds</u>. Gerundive included patterns are always used to substitute for nouns in basic sentence patterns, and they always end in the letters -<u>ing</u>.

```
PATTERN ONE:    We raced out of the theater.

PATTERN SEVEN:  It was a great joke.   becomes
                  N    V   Adv P  (D)      N     be (D) Adj   N
PATTERN SEVEN:  ⟨Racing out (of the theater)⟩ was a great joke.
```

```
PATTERN ONE:    I write correctly.

PATTERN SEVEN:  It is a difficult task.   becomes
                    N   V     Adj      be (D)  Adj      N
PATTERN SEVEN:  ⟨Writing correctly⟩ is a difficult task.
```

```
PATTERN THREE:  I like watching.

PATTERN SIX:    The basketball game is good.   becomes
                N  V       N  V (D) Adj     Adj       N
PATTERN THREE:  I like ⟨watching a good basketball game.⟩
```

```
PATTERN ONE:    The ducks quacked.

PATTERN THREE:  My dog heard it.
               (D) N    V   (D)  (D)       N
PATTERN THREE:  My dog heard the ducks' ⟨quacking.⟩
```

Notice that in the last sentence, the word *ducks'* before the gerund, *quacking* is in the possessive form. In English, such words as *my*, *our*, *John's* and *his* are always used before the gerund: *my* lifting, *our* laughing, *John's* singing, *his* flying.

As you have probably noticed in this lesson, it is not easy to use included verbal patterns. Many times they show rather unusual and complex relationships among words. It is important for you to identify verbal included patterns so that you will understand how they work in a sentence. It is more important, however, that you practice using them in your own written sentences. Don't be discouraged if the verbals don't always sound right. Practice using them and moving them around within your sentence patterns. By continual practice with modification and expansion devices, especially verbals, and with the various types of English sentence patterns, you should become a better writer.

LESSON NINETEEN

Expansion by Included Verbal Patterns

EXERCISE A. In the following sentences, identify the <u>included verbal patterns</u> by the method which has been used in this lesson. Write after the sentence the number of the basic sentence pattern. Remember, the included pattern does not represent the basic sentence pattern.

```
          N  V      N      P  (D)   N       be  Adj  N
Example: ⟨Eating popcorn (in the movies)⟩ is great fun.  PATTERN 7
          N  V   N       P  (D)   N       be  Adj  N
         ⟨To eat popcorn (in the movies)⟩ is great fun.  PATTERN 7
          Adj V     N      P  (D)   N        N        H   V
         ⟨Eating popcorn (in the movies),⟩ we never did see
          (D)   N
          the picture.  PATTERN 3
```

1. Hearing the great camp gong for the first time, the boys eagerly got out of bed.

2. To see them spill out of their tents was a funny sight.

3. Shrieking and hollering along the beach, they jumped into the lake.

4. Some boys decided to swim out to the raft.

5. Others wished to dip only their toes in the cold water.

6. Racing to their tents, some campers fell along the way.

7. To go back to the lake for a quick dip was their punishment.

8. Eating breakfast was on everyone's mind.

9. To grab a bowl of cereal and a plate of scrambled eggs was their only thought.

10. Forgetting the icy dip, they all ate noisily.

EXERCISE B. Combine the following pairs of basic sentence patterns into one basic sentence pattern with an included verbal pattern. Be prepared to explain the reasons for your choices.

Example: I run the school newspaper.
It is difficult.
Running the school newspaper is difficult.

1. I write good stories.
   It is hard.

2. They read interesting news.
   Everyone likes it.

3. I get the ads.
   It is a special job.

4. I plan the layout.
   It takes time.

5. They sell the paper.
   Home people like it.

6. I edit and revise.
   They are my favorite jobs.

7. The editorial staff chooses the best stories.
   It is a ticklish job.

8. They work hard.
   They somehow send the copy to the printer.

9. The printer sometimes runs the presses all night.
   He finally gets the issue out.

10. We celebrate a new issue.
    It seems the best time of all.

EXERCISE C. Write fifteen original sentences with included verbal patterns, using the following verbals.

Participles	Infinitives	Gerunds
swimming	to eat	studying
kicked	to play	dancing
laughing	to hide	driving
burning	to read	drinking
loved	to work	fishing

5-8047

SUMMARY

Title:	THE EFFECT OF SPECIAL INSTRUCTION ON THE ABILITY OF SEVENTH- AND EIGHTH-GRADE PUPILS TO WRITE COMPOSITIONS AND UNDERSTAND POETRY AND SHORT FICTION
Investigator:	Robert W. Blake
Institution:	State University College Brockport, New York
Project Number:	Small Contract Project S-312
Duration:	June 15, 1965 to June 30, 1966

BACKGROUND

One of the most important problems that faces the public school teacher is the question of the relationship between instruction which students receive in grammar and its effect upon their ability to write better compositions by whatever criteria. Although many linguists and teachers who work in applied linguistics state that modern English grammars will not affect students' ability to write better, a few scholars maintain that a program in which students receive information about the English language based upon the most accurate information available from modern linguistic science will produce a marked effect upon the students' writing production with relation to selected criteria.

OBJECTIVES

1. The major objective of this study was to determine the effectiveness of English language instruction, using materials adapted from structural and generative grammars, upon the ability of students to write more mature compositions. The study was orignially intended to test also the relationship between such language instruction and the students' ability to understand poetry and short fiction; but because of limitations during the actual study, the problem was delimited to include only the relationship between modern grammar study and student writing improvement. The actual study was also limited to seventh-grade students only, not seventh- and eighth-grade students.

2. The further significance of such a study was to determine the feasibility of applying the principles and procedures in a fully-articulated program of language instruction for grades kindergarten through twelve in the public schools.

PROCEDURE

The Director prepared linguistic materials and exercises designed to provide seventh-grade students with an understanding of how to analyze English sentences by a structural grammar approach and of how to create and combine new sentences by a generative-transformational approach. The lessons included from one to three sets of exercises; the titles of the individual lessons are as follow:

ONE:	WHAT IS GRAMMAR?
TWO:	GRAMMAR AND USAGE
THREE:	FORM CLASS WORDS

FOUR: FORM CLASS WORDS: NOUNS
FIVE: FORM CLASS WORDS: VERBS
SIX: FORM CLASS WORDS: ADJECTIVES
SEVEN: FORM CLASS WORDS: ADVERBS
EIGHT: STRUCTURE WORDS
NINE: THE SENTENCE: SUBJECT
TEN: THE SENTENCE: PREDICATE
ELEVEN: SENTENCE PATTERNS ONE AND TWO
TWELVE: SENTENCE PATTERNS THREE AND FOUR
THIRTEEN: SENTENCE PATTERNS FIVE, SIX, AND SEVEN
FOURTEEN: KERNEL SENTENCES AND TRANSFORMATIONS
FIFTEEN: EXPANSION BY MODIFICATION: ADJECTIVE AND ADVERBS
SIXTEEN: EXPANSION BY AUXILIARY OR HELPING VERBS
SEVENTEEN: EXPANSION BY PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES
EIGHTEEN: EXPANSION BY RELATIVE AND SUBORDINATE INCLUDED PATTERNS
NINETEEN: EXPANSION BY INCLUDED VERBAL PATTERNS

The linguistic materials were field-tested and then revised and re-written. For the study itself forty-three students were given the experimental linguistically-oriented materials, and fifty students were given traditional English grammar instruction. One teacher taught both experimental and control groups.

The new ideas for each lesson were presented by the teacher; the exercises were done in the classroom itself by the students, with explanations and suggestions given by the teacher. As pre-tests, all students were given the STEP Writing Test, 3A, and contributed a pre-writing sample, which was completed during one class period. As post-tests, all students took the STEP Writing Test, 3B, and produced a post-writing sample, which was again completed during one class period.

The *t* test of significance was the basic statistical treatment applied to the STEP Writing Test, Forms 3A and 3B, scores. On the basis of the findings by W. Kellogg Hunt in his study of Differences in Grammatical Structures Written at Three Grade Levels, The Structures To Be Analyzed by Transformational Methods that the best predictor of grade level ability in writing was the mean T-unit length, it was considered, then, that the mean length of T-units in the writing samples would be the best indicator of student growth throughout the experimental period. The T-unit was simply the number of words found in a sample of writing which contained one independent clause and any other subordinate clauses or verbal phrases.

For instance, here is an example of one of the pre-writing samples gathered for the study.

Autumn

> The bright red and yellow leaves fall, the mornings grow cold /and the scent of autumn fills the air. (Topic Sentence)/ [1](And) it reminds me of hunting and fishing. [2]When all the ducks and geeses come back and the fish begins to jump. [3](And) when I go out in the flieds with my gun, and see very many kinds of deer and the pretty leaves it always makes me think of autumn. [4](And) when I go fishing in the streams I hope to catch a fish. [5](And) when you look carefully you may see two turtles, and it looks as if they are thinking of a place to sleep. [6](And) then the air becomes colder and the water becomes colder, then you no that winter is on its way, then all of a sudden thing begin to turn while, but some day autumn will be back. [7](And) the leaves and trees will be a bright color red and yellow.

If we exclude the topic sentence, do not count the "and's" and "but's" at the beginning of groups of words, and consider a sentence as a group of words between a capital letter and a period (as has been done with previous studies which considered the length of sentences as the criterion for evaluating student writing), then we find that this student has written seven "sentences" with an average number of 19.14 words per sentence. Without an explanation, we would find the number of words per sentence quite impressive for a seventh grader; his composition, though, must be examined more carefully. "Sentence" six, for instance, is composed of 36 words; however, the words are joined in the following fashion: two independent clauses joined by an "and"; an independent clause tacked on with a comma (a run-on sentence, in popular terminology); and another independent clause tacked on with a comma and joined by a final independent clause connected by the coordinate conjunction, "but." This hardly seems to be mature writing.

Following the directions for identifying the T-unit, we find that the preceding composition can be broken up into the following T-units:

Autumn

The bright red and yellow leaves fall, the mornings grow cold/ and the scent of autumn fills the air. (Topic sentence)/ 1(And) it reminds me of hunting and fishing. When all the ducks and geeses come back and the fish begins to jump./ 2(And) when I go out in the flieds with my gun, and see very many kinds of deer and the pretty trees and leaves, it always makes me think of autumn./ 3(And) when I go fishing in the streams I hope to catch a fish./ 4(And) when you look carefully you may see two turtles,/ 5(and) it looks as if they are thinking of a place to sleep./ 6(And) then the air became colder/ 7(And) the water becomes colder,/ 8then you no that winter is on its way,/ 9then all of a sudden thing begin to turn while,/ 10 (but) some day autumn will be back./ 11(And) the leaves and trees will be a bright color red and yellow.

We now find that the student has written 11 T-units, of which the average length in words is 11.90. This appraisal seems a great deal more accurate than the former.

Since the writing samples were written by the students in school during a class period, many of the pre-writing samples were shorter in number of words than were the post-writing samples. To account for the difference in length of writing samples, the average T-unit lengths were weighted and converted by multiplying the number of the length of the average T-unit by 1 if the words in the sample ranged from 0 to 25 words; 2, for 26 to 50 words; 3, for 51 to 75 words; 4, for 76 to 100 words; and 5, for 100 plus words. The *t* test of significance was also applied to the average length of T-units for each writing sample and to the converted scores of the average length of T-units.

RESULTS

The results of the *t* test applied to the scores of the STEP Writing Test, 3A, for the students in both groups revealed that the linguistic group was significantly higher than the control group. The two groups represented intact classes previously assigned in a public junior high school; therefore, it is not surprising that in terms of this standardized test, the groups were significantly different in achievement. The results of a *t* test applied to the STEP Writing Test, 3A, and the STEP Writing Test, 3B, showed that both groups made significant gains in achievement during the study. The linguistic group also made significantly higher scores on the post-test STEP Writing Test, 3B, than did the control group; however, a comparison of the gain scores of the two groups revealed that, although the linguistic group had made a significantly higher gain over the period of the study, there was no significant difference in the gain between the two groups.

A t test applied to the mean length of the T-units of the pre-writing samples demonstrated that there was no significant difference between the two groups at the beginning of the study. Since the linguistic group was significantly higher in achievement on the STEP Writing Test, 3A, scores than the control group, it should be emphasized that there was no significant difference between the two groups with respect to the mean length of the T-units from the pre-writing samples. Possibly the STEP Writing Test and the T-units measure two unrelated elements in the writing process.

The linguistic group made a slightly higher gain in the length of mean T-units over the period of the study than did the control group, but the gain was not significant. A comparison of pre- to post-gain scores of the two groups revealed essentially the same results.

In terms of converted scores of the mean length of the T-units of the pre-writing samples, the linguistic group had significantly higher scores than did the control group. This greater achievement of the linguistic group at the beginning of the study was probably due to the greater length of the pre-writing samples produced by the linguistic group. Both groups made significant gains in converted scores of the length of mean T-units; the difference between the gains, however, was not significant. A study of the gain of the converted scores of the length of mean T-units showed that, although the control group had made a slightly higher gain than did the linguistic group, the gain was not significant.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The original aim of this exploratory study was to determine whether or not students would show increased maturity in writing as measured by the mean length of T-units in writing samples after instruction in materials based upon selected aspects of structural and generative grammars. The results of the study sustained the null hypothesis: as measured by a standardized writing test, the mean length of T-units in writing samples, and by converted scores of these same average T-units to account for the length of writing samples, there is no significant difference in student ability to write compositions between students who have materials based upon structural and generative grammars and students who have traditional Latinate grammar instruction. The writer believes, however, that another study, following the same theoretical basis and controlling more carefully some of the factors, would show a significant positive correlation. The one overall impression that remained with the writer after the study and the analysis of the data was the enormous complexity in attempting to measure in objective terms writing improvement.

The following factors, in the judgment of the writer, tended to limit the results of the study:

1. The teacher who taught the linguistic materials needed more time to assimilate the new ideas and approaches.

2. The students could not comprehend the linguistic lessons as easily as it was first anticipated.

3. More time than was originally planned was therefore needed to present the linguistically-oriented materials. It is recommended that a future study of this nature require at least two years.

4. For the study, the teacher was given lessons explaining linguistic concepts and exercises; the students were given only the exercises to work on and keep. It would seem more effective if all of the students had individual copies of the explanatory lessons.

5. A need was seen to have a uniform number of words for each of the writing samples. For the study, students were asked to write a paragraph at school within the limit of the class period. This resulted in writing samples ranging from one paragraph of 24 words to several paragraphs of more than 50 words. For a future study, three or four pre- and post-writing samples might be collected, and a random sample of approximately 100 words could be observed and analyzed.

6. There was an unnerving lack of correlation between student performance on the standardized writing tests and the mean length of the T-units from the writing samples. It may be possible that what is measured by this particular standardized test has very little relation to the ability of the students to write longer, more complex, and more mature sentences.

7. The time actually expended in analyzing the data from the writing samples was simply much longer than had been anticipated

In the future, students could be matched by some external criterion, and a smaller number of writing samples could be analyzed.

8. The writer is now convinced that the approach used with the students of moving from form class and structure words to the manipulation of syntactic patterns such as phrases and clauses was the opposite one which should have been used. A future study should start with the manipulation of syntactic patterns first and then move to the identification of form class and structure words, if so desired.

9. A final disquieting observation from the exploratory study was the fact that some students wrote longer T-units at the beginning of the study than they did at the end. It would seem that there are still other factors and variables which have not been identified yet in this complex, psychological act of writing. In spite of the problems encountered in this exploratory study, however, the writer thinks that the T-unit can become a reliable and objective means for measuring growth in writing maturity.

Notwithstanding the results of this study, the writer maintains that students who have an insight into how they and professional writers manipulate syntactic patterns and who have much practice in creating new and varied linguistic patterns, will write longer and more mature sentences. Although the effectiveness of a phrase- and clause-building approach to writing based upon the most appropriate knowledge to be gained from structural and generative grammars has not been substantiated, it has not been disproved either. It may be that there is no correlation between a student's knowledge of grammar -- any grammar, be it Latinate, structural, or generative-transformational -- and his ability to write longer, more complex, and more mature sentences; the writer prefers to think, however, that the ways of isolating and controlling the numerous physical and psychological factors in such studies that may help to disprove such a hypothesis have still eluded us.

On the basis of the experience gained from conducting and of analyzing the data from this exploratory study, the writer wishes to make the following recommendations:

1. Future studies should be conducted with students at different grade and ability levels in which much attention is given to a sentence-combining approach to creating new sentences based upon insights gained from generative-transformational grammars.

2. An attempt should be made to determine how the T-unit can